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HISTORY OF THE LANGUAGE, MATERIAL FOR INCORPORATION IN CURRICULA OF GRADES 11 AND 12.

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THIS CURRICULUM GUIDE, A PRODUCT OF NORTHERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY'S PROJECT ENGLISH CENTER, CONSISTS OF FOUR UNITS TO BE INCORPORATED INTO THE CURRICULA OF GRADES 11 AND 12--(1) THE HISTORY OF THE SOUNDS OF ENGLISH, (2) THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE GRAMMATICAL SIGNALS OF MODERN ENGLISH, (3) THE HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH SPELLING, AND (4) ETYMOLOGY. INCLUDED WITH EACH OF THE UNITS ARE (1) OBJECTIVES, (2) AN EXPLANATORY NOTE TO THE TEACHER, (3) SUGGESTED TEACHING SITUATIONS TO WHICH THE UNIT CAN BE ADAPTED, (4) DAILY LESSON PLANS, (5) A DESCRIPTION OF RELEVANT AUDIOVISUAL MATERIALS, AND (6) A BIBLIOGRAPHY. LESSONS DEAL WITH GRIMM'S LAW, THE GREAT VOWEL SHIFT, SOME HISTORICAL EXPLANATIONS FOR THE PRESENT CHAOS IN SPELLING, THE ANALYSIS OF THE ORIGIN OF WORDS, AND CHARACTERISTICS OF INDO-EUROPEAN, GERMANIC, AND OLD, MIDDLE, AND MODERN ENGLISH. (MM)

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HISTORY OF THE LANGUAGE

Material for incorporation in curricula of grades 11 and 12

Caution: These materials are being used experimentally by Project English participants, who are continuing to develop them. All material included, therefore, should be considered tentative drafts which will undergo extensive revision.

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Included with each of the above units are the following:

1. Objectives
2. Explanatory Note to the Teacher
3. Teaching situations to which the unit can be adapted
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I. HISTORY OF THE SOUNDS OF ENGLISH

A four-day unit plan

Objectives:

1. To introduce and illustrate some types of sound changes which have occurred in English over the past thousand years.

2. To give an overview of Grimm's Law and of the Great Vowel Shift and its resultant effects on English spelling and sound relationships.

3. To develop an awareness of the systematic sound changes which occur in the historical development of a language.

Note to the teacher:

This introductory unit includes some lecture material, and inductive presentations of the various changes in English sounds. Individual exercises are followed by teacher's notes and suggested activities. The general presentation can be incorporated in English III or IV, and is particularly appropriate as a transitional device between Chaucer's Middle English and Shakespeare. While this unit is intended for four days, a bibliography is included to provide material for expansion or student supplementary reports.

This unit can be adapted to the following situations:

1. The general presentation can be incorporated in English III or IV, and is particularly appropriate as a transitional device between Chaucer's Middle English and Shakespeare.
2. Lesson one can be incorporated in a unit on Beowulf, lessons two and three in a unit on Chaucer, and lesson four in a unit on Shakespeare.
3. This unit should be taught before spelling, as sound preceded spelling.
4. It would be helpful to have studied phonemic transcription before presentation of this unit.

First Day

Lecture Introduction to Entire Unit:

The language which eventually developed into modern English came to Britain about 1500 years ago with the Anglo-Saxon invasion of the British Isles. It was then a purely Germanic language, whose nearest relations on the European Continent were -- and still are -- the Low German dialects. From the dialects spoken by the two principal invading tribes, this early form of English is often named Anglo-Saxon. Old English is, however, the preferable term, since it stresses the continuity in the history of English. For Old English changed into Middle English in the eleventh century, and Middle English became New English or Modern English during the fifteenth century. So we all speak Anglo-Saxon of a sort, though King Alfred would be hard put to it to recognize his own idiom in its twentieth-century descendant.

Radical structural changes characterize the transition from Old English to Middle English and no less from Middle English to Modern English. From being a highly inflected Germanic language, English gradually changed into a mixed language of few inflections. Fundamentally, however, it is still a Germanic language despite the immense influx of foreign words, at first Scandinavian, then for three centuries almost exclusively French, and later mainly Latin and Greek. Many of these loan words have become so completely absorbed into the language that they can no more be disposed with. While, for instance, *head*, *hair*, *eyes*, *ear*, *nose* and *mouth* are Germanic, a French word, *face*, has ousted the old *andwlita* (cf. German *Antlitz*). The pronunciation, too, has changed radically, but the spelling remains largely what it was in the beginning of the fifteenth century;

this conservatism is the reason for the utterly unphonetic character of modern English orthography.

The present pronunciation of English was reached about 1800. Since then no major developments have taken place, though certain evolutionary trends are discernible to the phonetician. For instance, spelling-pronunciations are on the increase, that is to say, words are sometimes pronounced so as to conform better to the spelling; one often hears, e.g., the *l* again pronounced in *calm*, *palm*, where it has been silent for about 500 years, the first syllable of *falcon* is sounded like *tal-* in *talcum* instead of 'faw-' or 'fall-', the historically correct forms. The influence of the radio and TV in spreading such unhistorical forms and on the other hand making them more uniform cannot be overestimated.

Lecture introduction to Exercises I and II:

Let us imagine that three great representatives of three periods of the English language (Old English, 449-1066 or 1100; Middle English, 1100-1500; Early Modern, 1500-1700) meet in some point out of time at a London coffee house to discuss the state of the language. King Alfred, Anglo Saxon king of the ninth century, educator, and the father of English prose, is there to represent the Old English period. Geoffrey Chaucer, author of *Canterbury Tales* and greatest English poet before Shakespeare, represents the Middle English Period. William Shakespeare, with no competitor, represents the Early Modern Period. Each of us as observers can represent the Late Modern Period (1700 to the present) since it would be difficult to select at so close range one great representative.

Although these men were skilled in the language of their day, they find in their discussion that many changes have come about --

changes in sound, spelling, inflection (changes which express number case, and tense), meaning, word order, usage, style, and vocabulary. Communication is difficult and at times impossible. For example, King Alfred has in his vocabulary more than fifty O. E. verbs with the prefix *wiþ* -- where it indicates against or away, as *wiþceosan* reject (*ceosan*- choose). Chaucer uses two other verbs, *withdraw* and *withhold*, which were formed on the same model in the Middle English Period. Shakespeare, however, uses none of these particular verbs that King Alfred uses, and the only verb with this prefix meaning *against* that all three use is *withstand*.

Further, all three of these representatives of language periods are confused by changes in word order, pronunciations, and usages. King Alfred and Chaucer used the double negative freely, Shakespeare used it somewhat more sparingly, and you and I try to avoid it completely. Shakespeare's use of prepositions sounds strange to us; King Alfred's pronunciations are not familiar, and some of Chaucer's are not identifiable as English.

But how do these three great figures *sound* as they speak the language of their period? One method of answering this question is by examining a text and applying some of the facts about pronunciation that are available.

EXERCISE I. The following selection written in Old English (Anglo-Saxon) will perhaps appear to you at first to be written in a foreign language. Examine it carefully to 1) identify the selection, and 2) recognize all the words you can.

(PASSAGE I) Faêder ūre,

þū þe eart on heofonum,

sī þīn nama gehālgod.

Tōbecume þin rīce.

Gewurþe ðīn willa on eorðan swā swā on heofonum.

Ūrne gedae ghwāmlīcan hlāf syle ūs tō daeg.

And forgyf ūs ūre gyltas, swā swā wē forgyfaþ ūrum gyltendum.

And ne gelǣd þū ūs on costnunge,

ac ālȳs ūs of yfele. Soþlīce.

TO THE TEACHER: In line 2, þū þe is Modern English thou that. Line 5, swā swā is so so; "as in earth, so in heaven." Ūrne gedae ghwāmlîcan hlāf syle ūs is "our daily loaf give us." The last word, soþlîce is verily.

EXERCISE II. Now that you have identified the selection and recognized some of the words, write an interlinear translation. Your teacher will help you with some of the difficult parts.

In the last two exercises you noticed some symbols that are no longer in use in modern English. There are a number of interesting points about these obsolete letters of the alphabet that

"In English tonge I schalȝow telle
ȝifȝe wyth me so longe wil dwelle."

Second Day:

EXERCISE III.

First, look at this passage of Middle English taken from an early romance, Arthur and Merlin. Underline the letters that we no longer use at all. (In this step do not underline letters that simply indicate modern spellings.) Try to read the passage. For each of the old letters, form a tentative hypothesis about the sound.

(PASSAGE II) Riȝt is, þæt Inglische Inglische vnderstond
þæt was born in Inglond
Freynsche vse þis gentilman
Ac enerich Inglische can
Mani noble ich haue yseiȝe
þæt no Freynsche couþe seye.

(You have undoubtedly already formed some generalizations about the letters; now test your theories.)

TO THE TEACHER: This passage should probably be duplicated and projected. Each student can then use his copy for a worksheet while the class as a whole can test its findings and the teacher mark the transparency to correspond to the "refined" hypotheses. The class will have to be told that in this case the digraph is to be considered an archaic letter. Some students will probably recall having seen it, but the point can be made that this form is just a little slower in fading out of use than the others, a bit of oneupmanship that should help to illustrate the general thesis that language does change.

The students will obviously identify the three archaic forms, the thorn (þ), the yogh (ȝ), and the aesc (æ). The thorn appears often enough that its value can be tested by context. At this point you might introduce the eth (ð), explaining it as an alternate form of the thorn. The following facts might be told:

1. Until 900 the English used "th" for the sound; then they seem to have borrowed the rune þ from the Scandinavians; even earlier they had crossed the Irish "d" for the sound; the resultant symbol was the eth (ð).

2. While it seems logical that thorn would be used for the voiceless "th", and eth for the voiced form, such was not the case. The two were used interchangeably.

3. The use of the two characters was really a passing fad; eth dropped out in the early ME, and thorn was practically extinct by 1400; since then the original "th" has been used for both sounds, voiced and unvoiced.

4. The yogh (ȝ) was another borrowing from the Irish. In Old English it was used as "y", as "g", and as "j", as well as the velar spirant, the German "ch". In Middle English it was sounded as "Y" and the "guttural" ch. In the two brief passages here the students can see two of the values in use.

5. Our present-day words with the "silent gh" were once sounded with the velar spirant, which was at first represented by "h" and then by the yogh, and later by the "gh".

6. The aesc (æ) was a sign representing a Latin sound -- not the usual Latin "a", but the "a" in cat; the sign was given the runic name for the same sound. When the sound disappeared about 1100, the sign went too; when the sound returned in the 16th century, the aesc was replaced by the "a". Danish, Icelandic, and Norwegians have retained the ligatured digraph.

EXERCISE IV.

Note all the occurrences of the letters "u" and "v" in Passage II. What theories can you formulate about the sounds of these two letters in this passage? Are the values simply the reverse of their modern values? How do you know?

TO THE TEACHER: "U" and "v" were used interchangeably as vowel and consonant; the English scribes generally used "v" initially and "u" internally. Continental printers gradually distinguished them as we do today.

This would be a good place to tell the students about the wynn (ƿ). Along with the thorn, the wynn was borrowed from the Teutonic runic alphabet about 900 AD. Earlier, the English had used the "u" or "uu" to indicate the "w". The wynn was used almost as long as the thorn; in the meantime, the English "uu" had gone to the Continent, where, as an expatriate, it had taken on a certain Gallic air by being ligatured, and returned as an import to its native country in the form of our present "w".

Third Day:

Exercise V. Metathesis

Lecture material on Grimm's Law and on the Great Vowel Shift. The discussion of the Great Vowel Shift will illustrate Middle English change of sound laws -- differences between early and modern English pronunciation. Out-of-class assignment on exercise VI.

EXERCISE V. The words in the list below are all known to you, although the forms may look unusual. (No, they are not misspelled.) Identify the words in the first column; form your hypothesis about the difference between the older and more modern forms; apply the hypothesis to the words in the second column and see what you come up with.

aks ____________

childern ____________

hwich ____________

hwat ____________

hros ____________

hwit ____________

urn ____________

TO THE TEACHER: Most students will catch on quickly to the transposition of letters in the history of these words (metathesis); practically all will recognize that the sounds have obviously changed, too. You may have to make the point that the sound preceded the "spelling" and that the earlier pronunciations were not the products of ignorant people, but were perfectly acceptable ways of saying the words. A few of the more perceptive students may notice that the words fall into two classes -- those which have a transposed "r" or "s", and those which have a transposed "hw". Actually the two groups represent two different historical processes.

1. The "r" and "s" groups exemplify the process of metathesis, a simple transposition of the sound, probably because the metathesized form is easier to say. Children often do this with some of the more difficult consonant combinations. You may ask (or aks) the students to notice some of the pronunciations of their brothers and sisters. Other common examples from the history of English are brid>bird, and thrid>third.

2. The "hw" group seems to have operated in reverse from the metathesized: here the pronunciation apparently remained stable quite long after the spelling changed. Today many prescriptivists insist that their students aspirate the "wh" words. In some dialects the aspiration seems to remain without too great an assist from the schools. It would be interesting at this point to take inventory of the ways in which class members pronounce these words, and why.

Supplementary

Lecture introduction to discussion on Great Vowel Shift. (This is a *general* introduction for the work of the third and fourth days.)

Twice in its development English pronunciation has undergone revolutionary changes. The first important sound-shift occurred during the eleventh century, the transition period between Anglo-Saxon or Old English (500-1100) and Middle English (1100-1450); the second began about 1400, the so-called Great Vowel Shift. The earlier change involved, e.g., the reduction of the Old English diphthongs to simple vowels like *eo* to *ē* (*bēo*>*bē* '*bee*'), *ēa* to *ē* (*strēam* *strēm* '*stream*'), the rounding of *ā* to *ō* (*bāt*>*bōt* '*boat*'), the unrounding of *y* to *i* (*fȳr*>*fīr* '*fire*', *brycg* *bridge*), and the reduction of most inflectional vowels to *e* as in *nama*>*name*, *nosu*>*nose*, *oxan*>*oxen*; in addition French orthographic practices were sometimes adopted so that *hūs* came to be written *house* though the pronunciation remained the same as before. The Great Vowel Shift was even more revolutionary, since it eventually resulted in the now typically English vowel values: *o* in *do*, *moon* has no longer the Continental sound of *o* in German *Sohn* or French *chose* but one that is almost identical with German *u* in *du* or French *ou* in *vous*. The long *a* in Middle English *name*, once pronounced like German *Name*, changed in the fifteenth century to the long vowel of modern *bad*, while the final *e* ceased to be pronounced. In the sixteenth century, this new vowel was further raised, becoming approximately the *ê* of French *même* (or of English *there*); not until about 1800 did it acquire its present diphthongal value (ei). At the same time the long *e* of *be*, *see*, which in Middle English had been pronounced like *e* in German *sehen*, achieved its present quality (iː), while on the other hand long *i* in *bite*, once pronounced like *ie* in German *sie*, that is (iː), was diphthongized, first to (əi) (a combination of (ə) as *a* in *above* or *u* in *upon* and *i* in *sit*), and eventually, in the latter half of the eighteenth century, to present day (ai). Similarly Middle English long *u* in *house*, once sounded like *o* in modern *do*, that is (uː), was first diphthongized to (əu) and finally to modern (au) some time before 1800. And so on.

"The fourth distinctive mark of the Germanic languages is their almost regular shifting of the Indo-European consonants. That is to say, the original Indo-European sounds remained in general unchanged in all branches except the Germanic; but there their articulation shifted, a new set of sounds being substituted for them. The evidence for this shift was discovered by comparing hundreds of words whose meaning was very close, but whose forms differed as between the Germanic and the non-Germanic branches, whereupon it was seen that these differences were not haphazard but clearly followed a pattern. The regularity of these changes was first stated by the Danish linguist Rasmus Rask, in 1814; but their later formulation by Jacob Grimm in 1822 has given the principles the designation 'Grimm's Law.' It is now more often called the first Germanic consonant shift. It may, however, be broadly stated as follows:

Voiced aspirated stops	Voiced stops	Voiceless stops
bh dh gh	b d g	p t k
↓ ↓ ↓	↓ ↓ ↓	↓ ↓ ↓
b d g	p t k	f th h
Indo-European voiced aspirated stops lost aspiration and became Germanic voiced stops.	Indo-European voiced stops lost voice and became Germanic voiceless stops.	Indo-European voiceless stops lost their stopped quality and became Germanic voiceless spirants.
(Stage 3)	(Stage 2)	(Stage 1)

It is to be understood, of course, that each original set of consonants changed only once; for example, the *b*, *d*, *g* that resulted from the shift of *bh*, *dh*, *gh* did not shift further." (Stuart Robertson and Frederic G. Cassidy, *The Development of Modern English*, Second Edition, 1954, pp. 28-29.)

The history of English sounds is, indeed, a fascinating and important field of study, one that has occupied scholars for over a century. How they worked and what evidence they relied on when establishing the nature and chronology of the sound changes they discovered can obviously not be explained in any complete form in this unit. Yet it is safe to say that the cumulative research of generations of philologists will enable us to approach the problem of reconstructing early English pronunciation of any given period with considerable confidence. Though many details still remain unsettled and the dating of certain changes may at times be in dispute, there is fortunately agreement among scholars on the major issues involved. In other words, it is possible for us to reproduce with respectable accuracy the primary phonetic features (vowels, diphthongs, consonants, stress) of English from, say, 700 A.D. on. But we can never hope to recapture the intonationpatterns of the past, nor the rhythm and tempo of earlier oral delivery. We shall simply have to superimpose our own usage in these respects on the reconstructed pronunciation of a given text in the belief that these secondary phonetic features cannot possibly have changed so drastically as the individual speech sounds.

Specific lecture material for third day. (leading up to Exercise VI.)

All of the sound changes we have considered so far are quite obvious and can be easily observed by comparing the forms of the words. The next section will consider sound changes that are more pervasive, and, usually, more subtle. In some instances you may find the process of change difficult to follow; you may wonder how a given word got from there to here. Vowel sounds especially may be hard to pin down. If you have this "now I hear it, now I don't" feeling, make a one-man survey of the variations of sound made by your class in pronouncing the word "pin." This will show you the variations possible and make you aware of the fluidity of language. The amazing thing is not that language changes, but that we are able to make it stand still long enough to get sense out of it.

Now let us examine some of the major sound changes that have taken place in our language. Remember that these changes take place very slowly and gradually, so that speakers of the language are not usually aware of the process at all. Remember also that the subject is much more complex than we can indicate here. However, there are some important general statements that can be made, statements that can enable us to understand what the language was like in earlier periods, and what kinds of processes have gone on and are still going on today.

Fortunately, some of the sounds of English haven't changed very much at all. For example, most of the consonant sounds in Modern English are the same as the consonant sounds in Anglo-Saxon. Also, the short vowels, although they have changed in some cases, are frequently the same in Modern English as in Anglo-Saxon.

Example: short vowels.

Old English bĕdd and Modern English bŏd have the same vowel sound.

Old English scip and Modern English ship have the same short i vowel sound.

The long vowels, on the other hand, have changed significantly.

Example: long vowel

Old English stan (stone)

The a changed about 1100 to sound like that in Modern English law /stɔn/ in central and southern England.

TO THE TEACHER: The letters between the slant marks above comprise the phonetic spelling of the word. Later, in what is called the "great vowel shift," this vowel underwent further change, until in Shakespeare's day (sixteenth century) the pronunciation had become similar to ours today (stone). On the other hand, in northern England, the Old English sound developed to a long a, rhyming with vane. This is its pronunciation in Scotland today. In Robert Burns' poem, "To a Mouse," we read, "But Mousie, thou art no thy lane" in which the last three words are "not alone." This poem is in most of the English literature anthologies, so that the students will be reminded of this vowel shift later on in their literature study.

Not all long a's developed in this same way, however. The word name (see line 3 of the Lord's Prayer) illustrates two interesting changes. The long a of Anglo-Saxon nama /nama/ has changed to our Modern English long a /neym/. Also, all letters and syllables were pronounced. Old English was essentially a phonetic language.

Most of the major changes in the long vowel sounds, such as those we have examined, did not take place until the end of the Middle English period. Thus the *quality* of the Old English vowels did not change much in passing into Middle English; however, their *quantity* did change. Old English long vowels were shortened in late Old English or early Middle English when followed by a double consonant or by most combinations of consonants (*grĕtter*, comparative of *grēt* was derived from Old English *great*; *asken* was derived from Old English of *exian*, ask). Some short vowels were lengthened in Middle English (O. E. *băcan* became M. E. *bāken*, bake; *ĕtan* became eten, eat).

As we move to Modern English we find that Middle English long vowels changed considerably, but short vowels in accented syllables remained quite stable.

For our text in Middle English, we will examine the opening lines from Chaucer's Prologue to the *Canterbury Tales*.

Whan that Aprillë with his shourës sootë
The droghte of March hath percėd to the rootë,
And bathëd every veyne in swich licour,
Of which vertu engendrėd is the flour;
Whan Zephirus eek with his swetë breeth
Inspired hath in every holt and heeth
The tendrë croppës, and the yongë sonnë
Hath in the Ram his halfë cours y-ronnë,
And smalë fowlës maken melodyë,
That slepen al the night with open yë,
(So priketh hem nature in hir coragës):
Than longen folk to goon on pilgrimages,
And palmers for to seken straungë strondës,
To fėrne halwës, couthe in sondry londës;

And specially, from every shires endë
Of Engelond, to Caunterbury they wendë,
The holy blisful martir for to sekë,
That hem hath holpen, whan that they were sekë.

Since the changes in short vowels from Middle English to Modern English were slight, we will look first at the two most important of them before we examine the much greater changes in the long vowels. Chaucer's short a became by the end of the sixteenth century /æ /, as in cat and flax. This is especially interesting in that this takes the sound back to the Anglo-Saxon, as in Anglo-Saxon ðæt /ðæ t/. which became Middle English that /θ at/, which in turn became Modern English that /ð æt/. Another change took place in the short u, and is known as unrounding. For example, in Chaucer's pronunciation it was like the u in full.. By the sixteenth century it was like the sound that we now have in but.

The long vowels in Chaucer's day still had their so-called "continental" values, for the most part the same as in Old English.

Assignment:

EXERCISE VI. What are the sounds of the long vowels in some of the European languages you have studied, such as Latin, French, German, or Spanish? How do you think the following words from Chaucer's Prologue were pronounced in Middle English?

bathëd
shourës (showers)
rootë
swetë (sweet)
inspirëd

makën
slepän
holy
knight
night

TO THE TEACHER: /baðəd/, /sʊrəs/, /ro tə/, / swe tə/, /inspi rəd/, /ma kən/, /sleypan/, /hɔli/, /knikt/, /nikt/.

Fourth Day:

Discussion of Exercise VI.

Pronunciation guide and summary chart on the Great Vowel Shift.

The process by which these vowels became what they are in Modern English was known as the Great Vowel Shift. No one knows why it took place, but the whole change happened over a relatively short period of time during the 14th century. And as we have seen, it happened only in English, not in any of the languages closely related to it, such as German and Latin.

It is possible to learn in a fairly short time to pronounce Chaucer's English in something like the way Chaucer pronounced it. In fact, by remembering the following principles, one can arrive at a rough approximation of the sounds of Middle English:

1. Pronounce the short vowels as they are pronounced today.
2. Pronounce the long vowels with their "continental" values.
3. Pronounce all the letters and syllables, except any final e's that would interfere with the meter of the poetry.

TO THE TEACHER: Pronounce a few lines slowly, so that the student can hear how the above system works. Allow some time for students to pronounce some lines also.

Notice that all the letters of night and knight were pronounced in Middle English. Thus one can see how changes in pronunciation without corresponding changes in spelling have made spelling one of our greatest problems in Modern English. Not only that, but the problem was in some cases compounded by the 18th century scholars who set about to fix or standardize the spelling of English. Observing night and light, they established the spelling of delight by analogy, although the word was regularly spelled much more sensibly delite. Notice also that the final sound of Middle English night, while no longer found in Modern English, is very much a part of Modern German and Scottish.

Do you hear any difference between the vowel sounds at the beginnings of these words: ago, upon, opinion? Actually there is no difference. In all periods of the language the vowels of the unstressed syllables have had a tendency to weaken and then often to disappear. This weakening has also occurred in middle and final syllables. Consider introduce, kingdom, drama, breakfast, Monday. How does this create another spelling problem? Also compare the French mouton, English mutton; French raisin, English raisin; French bonté, English bounty.

The following chart shows the shift in vowel sounds that took place between the times of Chaucer and Shakespeare (Middle English and Early Modern).

O. E.		M. E.		Mn. E.	O. E.	M.E.	Mn. E.
æ:	--	æ:	>	i	sæ, clǣ'ne	see, clene	sea, clean
e :		e :	>	i	grēne, tēð	grene, tooth	green, tooth
i:, y:	-	i:	>	ʌɪ	Is, hȳdan	ise, hide	ice, hide
a:		ɔ:	>	o	bān, bat	boon, bote	bone, boat
o:	--	o :	>	u	toð, sōna	tooth, soone	tooth, soon
u:	--	u :	>	əU	mūð, hūs	mouthe, haus	mouth, house

General Exercise (Supplementary):

Assignment to be done during three week period: (if you wish to expand unit). The students will be instructed to "devour" newspapers, magazines, conversations, signs, radio, and television programs, and any other sources of current language at their disposal. Wherever new words are being generated, the students should collect and record data. At the end of the three week period, they will be asked to submit their data, along with any relevant clippings which they have accumulated. The material will then be discussed and analyzed by the class.

Audio Aid:

Use record, A Thousand Years of English Pronunciation by Helge Kokeritz. eav Lexington LE7650/55

The first side of the first record is devoted almost exclusively to Anglo-Saxon or Old English. It begins with four selections from Beowulf read in the normalized West-Saxon dialect of about 800 A.D. Then follows an extract for AElfric's Homilies in late tenth-century West-Saxon. This is immediately followed by a brief text from the West-Saxon translation of the Gospels, the story of the centurion's servant (St. Luke, VII, 2-9), which for the sake of comparison is next read in the late Middle English translation by Wyclif and Purvey (about 1390) and finally also in that of The Authorized Version of 1611.

The second side of the same record is reserved for Middle English of different dialects and different periods, with a preponderance, however, of the fourteenth-century London dialect, the antecedent of Modern English.

The earliest phase of the Great Vowel Shift can be studied in the brief extract from Caxton's preface to his translation of Virgil's Aeneid, which begins the first side of Record 2.

The second side of the same record covers roughly the seventeenth century, beginning with two selections from Marlowe and ending with two from Pope.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

* Baugh, Albert C. *A History of the English Language*, 2nd ed. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1957.

Bryant, Margaret M. *Modern English and Its Heritage*. 2nd ed. New York: Macmillan, 1962.

Bloomfield, Morton W., and Leonard Newmark. *A Linguistic Introduction to the History of English*. New York: Knopf, 1963.

Brook, G. L. *A History of the English Language*. New York: Norton, 1958.

Jespersen, Otto. *Essentials of English Grammar*. Univ. of Alabama Press, 1964.

* Jespersen, Otto. *Growth and Structure of the English Language*. Doubleday-Anchor Books (Paperback), 1938.

Pyles, Thomas. *The Origins and Development of the English Language*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1964.

* Robertson, Stuart, revised by F. G. Cassidy. *The Development of Modern English*. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1954.

The histories marked with asterisks are the most satisfactory.

Use Baugh as a major source and supplement with Robertson and Pyles.

Jespersen, *Modern English Grammar* (part I) is good for discussion of Vowel Shift.

II. The Development of the Grammatical Signals of Modern English - Ten-Day unit.

This two-week unit consists of the following items:

General and specific objectives

Suggested utilization

Instructor's overview

Annotated bibliography

Individual lessons and materials:

1. Definition of the term "language signal" - 1 day
2. Basic structural systems in language - 1 or 2 days
3. Characteristics of Indo-European - 1 day
4. The Germanic languages - 1 day
5. The historical development of English - 1 day
6. Old English - 1 day
7. Middle English - 1 day
8. The structure and signals of Modern English - 1 day
9. Summary exercises on structure and signals - 2 days
10. Bibliography

Objectives:

The purpose of this unit is to provide an overview of the origins and major signals of Modern English through examination of some of the basic historical aspects of English. The student's curiosity should be focused on the factors which make English what it is at the present time -- a result of the evolution which a natural language undergoes throughout its history.

These differences in Old, Middle, and Modern English reflect in many ways the evolution which has led to the flexibility and forcefulness of present-day English. The study of language at a given time is also a valuable reflection of that time's culture.

Specific aims:

1. to develop awareness of the general characteristics of the Indo-European language family.
2. to demonstrate specific changes or developments which occur in language.
3. to understand the signals of modern English, and the various factors in its evolution from Old and Middle English.

Utilization:

This unit might be presented after the study of Old English selections, to provide an understanding of the language background of this period, and to provide insight into the basic formation of Old English from the Low-German and Norse languages. The evolution of English could prepare the student for Chaucer's Middle English and the transition to Modern English.

In a basic language and composition course, this unit might serve as an introduction to present-day English grammar. However, this material could also provide enrichment after the study of syntax, providing a historical perspective and an understanding of structural changes.

The second section of this unit, lessons 5-8, could be used separately. The focus of this second week's material is entirely on the development of English from the Germanic Old English rather than from Indo-European.

Terminology:

The following terms and concepts are of use in this unit; these might be defined and given to the student if this is to be used as an introduction to English grammar.

agglutinative language

synthetic language

analytic language

free and bound morphemes

inflections

sentence patterns

inverted patterns

parent languages

1. Definition of the term "language signal" - one day

Introductory Statement to the student

"We look, but do we see?" This familiar question can be paraphrased: "We talk, but do we know how we communicate?" By the time we entered first grade we knew a basic vocabulary and how to use that vocabulary to express our wants: "I wanna wear my red one"; our questions: "How do birds fly?"; and our deeper musings: "Once I can read I'll be as smart as the grownups." So early in our lives we know the spoken English communication system and could use it quite easily. Our main efforts in grades 1, 2, and 3 were to learn how to read and write that same English. Then in grades 4 and up we learned something about the language we had been using for about ten years. We were exposed to a whole new vocabulary including such terms as noun, verb, adjective, adverb, conjunction, and preposition. We related these parts of speech to parts of sentences: "The noun may be the subject of the verb, the object of the verb, the object of a preposition, the complement of a linking verb." "An adjective modifies a noun or pronoun."

Now from the high school heights we take another look at the English we speak, read, write, and analyze. The main objective of this lesson is to look at signals and clues we may frequently overlook.

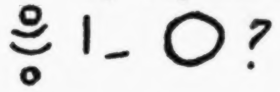
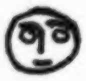
The particular objectives are two:

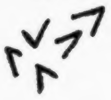
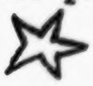
1. to reinforce the concept of language clue or signal;
2. To discover the signal system of English.

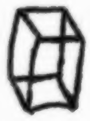
To the Teacher

The concept of "language signal" indicates the system
order
organization
structure.

By way of analogy, can you identify this:

 Now let's organize or structure these parts: 

What is this?  Could it be this? 

Try this: —— —— —— —— —— —— —— —— - - - - = 

Each separate piece has minimal significance. But when the parts are brought into ordered relationship, they inform each other and create a structure with new significance. Moreover, each separate piece gains significance through its relationship to the total structure.

Now let us apply this principle to language. The first structure signal in English is word order -- an easy principle to teach. The following kind of exercise may prove helpful.

Each separate word has minimal significance:

the, the, the, the, the, car, may, highway, girl, on, on, or, sidewalk, not, street, run, but

First separate the words with the most lexical significance:

car, highway, girl, sidewalk, street, run

The words with least lexical significance:

the, the, the, the, the, may, on, on, or, not, but

Now organize the lexical words (nouns and verbs) so that they begin to"make sense."

girl run car street highway sidewalk

A sentence begins to take shape, but there is need for the other words to signal the full relationship among the parts.

The may the on the or the but not on the

and you have:

The girl may run the car on the street or the highway but not on the sidewalk.

The words that relate the lexical words to one another are sometimes known as structure words.

We have indicated two important "language signals" of English, word order and structure words. Both of these signals will operate in the following exercise -- and a third kind of signal you should notice.

The argulic zorfies are flinking a promounder in the rufmicks trendenciously.

1. What words do you immediately recognize?
2. What is the subject?
3. You do not have to prove it -- but is this a sentence?
4. Is there a verb? Identify the verb word. How do you know?
5. What can you tell about the "promounder"?

   What or whom are the "zorfies" "flinking"?
6. What can you tell about "rufmicks"?
7. What can you tell about "trendenciously?"
8. Does this sound like a sad sentence?

   What words have sounds that suggest a line of action?
9. Substitute "real" words for the "borbly" ones.

While the students are answering, the teacher is filling in the following columns:

	I	II	III
Verb	-ing	are	after subject first noun
Subject	-(ic)s - ic	the	before verb after the, after adjective
Object	-er pre-	a	after a, after verb, before on
Adverb	(place)-s(noun) (manner) -ly -ous	in the	object of preposition, noun after the after verb, after object

What do the items in column I have in common?

What do the items in column II have in common? LABEL THE COLUMNS

What do the items in column III have in common?

Note the order of the adverbs. Place always precedes manner.

REVIEW: Three "language signals" of English are word order, structure words, and affixes.

DOGS BARKING LOUDLY STREET= lexical words need structure words, even when the lexical words are in order.

Add: were, in, the= Dogs were barking loudly in the street.

Notice the s on dog and the ly on loud. These are significant signals.

Relate them to Column I.

2. Basic structural characteristics of language - One or two days

Linguists as early as the eighteenth century noticed strong similarities in the structures of certain languages. Comparison led them to exciting discoveries in languages: just as individuals belong to families which trace back through history to reveal some rather surprising ancestors, so do languages belong to families that sometimes show common ancestry.

The overall structural characteristics of a language are often useful in tracing the common ancestry; cultural similarities and geographical proximity are also important factors.

A look at three basic language structures might illustrate how this ancestry can be explored. These structures, which will be illustrated and defined separately, are as follows:

1) agglutinative languages
2) synthetic languages
3) analytic languages

The advantages of the analytic structure of Modern English might best be illustrated through the analysis and contrast of the three structural types.

1) An agglutinative language is essentially one of compounding or affixation--

root + root + root + root

The secondary roots tend to become abbreviated into the prefixes and suffixes which compose long words which in turn approximate the sentences or complex phrases of Modern English. The basic structure in the agglutinative language is to add part to part. In Santali, for example, some very long "words" result:

"dal" (strike) + ocho-akan-tahen-tao-tin-a-e ("He who belongs to him who belongs to me, will continue letting him be struck.") Here, one word contains more than one element of the situation.

Many languages and language families show this same structure:

Ainu (aborigines of Japan)
Japanese
Korean
Caucasus
Tasmanian (Australia)

Basque of the Pyrenees
Sudanese Negro
Hottentot
Negrito
Andamanere
Papuan

In English, a few words might compare in a small way with the general process in an agglutinative language:

dis + trust + ful + ly = not + trust + full + like
mis + ap + prehen + sion = not + to + grasp + nominalization
un + hope + ful + ly = not + hope + full + like

Agglutinative is literally parts "stuck together." Little is known of what might be called an incorporative language, one in which all sentence elements are combined in a single word. The language of Greenland allows a single word to express the concepts of subject--verb--object. (Teacher's note: See Lehman, Historical Linguistics: An Introduction, Sections 3.1, 3.2, and 3.5, pp. 51-60.

2) The next language structure to develop might have been the synthetic or inflectional. The inflectional suffixes of our early language resembled independent words, so some scholars believed that the inflectional languages grew from the agglutinative.

In a synthetic language, the relationship of words in a sentence depends largely on the inflectional signs. The Latin "agricola amat puellam" means "The farmer loves the girl," and this meaning is not dependent on word order. Rather, the meaning is fixed by the nominative agricola and the accusative (objective) inflection am on puellam. Modern English has a fixed word order rather than a system of inflection: "The girl loves the farmer" would change the meaning.

Latin is an inflectional language; Latin students are well aware of the different suffixes needed to show number, case, gender, tense, mood, person, and voice. Old English was also highly inflected--over 300 different inflected forms.

A brief exercise might illustrate the importance of inflections rather than word order in a synthetic language.

> In the following six sentences, us is the sign of the masculine, singular nominative, and the om inflectional suffix represents the object of the verb. This exercise requires a clear distinction between the two meanings of any sentence--the lexical meaning of the individual words, and the structural meaning of the sentence as a whole.

Which of the following is different in meaning?

Johnus hit Billom.	Billom hit Johnus.
Johnus Billom hit.	Hit Billom Johnus
Billom Johnus hit.	Hit Johnus Billom.

(See exercise 2 for further suggestions on inflectional structure.)

3. Modern English, unlike modern German, Old English, or Latin, is an analytical language. While both analytic and synthetic structures utilize inflections, the analytic requires fewer inflections (only 7 in Modern English) and depends instead on structure words (prepositions, conjunctions, auxiliary verbs) and particularly on word order.

A statement like "John hit Bill" does not confuse you. It is clear who performed the action and who received the blow. If you place Bill first in the sentence, the meaning is changed to "Bill hit John" unless you perform an additional alteration (passive voice) to "Bill was hit by John." This general stability of word order in English allows us to establish the basic sentence patterns of Modern English

Words in Modern English are isolating rather than inflectional. In isolating languages, there is no clear distinction in parts of speech. The part of speech of a given word is determined by the word function in the sentence. Thus a sentence context is necessary to determine the part of speech of a given word.

Exercises:

1. Compare the characteristics of an analytic and synthetic language. Which type would you prefer to learn as a second language? Why? (Students might relate some of their experiences in learning Latin.)

Synthetic languages: primitive bound forms which cannot stand alone to convey meaning; few helping words; word order has no bearing on meaning; highly inflected; grammatical gender.

Analytic languages: prefix and suffix bound forms have recognizable meaning; auxiliaries and structure words provide ease and flexibility; isolating characteristic.

2. Create your own "code language" by utilizing an inflection system with your conventional vocabulary. Illustrate the number of different word order possibilities made available in a reasonably complex sentence such as Subject--Verb--Indirect Object--Direct Object. Give your adjectives the same inflections as the words they modify.

Johne gave littler Biller onem peanutem.

3. Compare the word order possibilities of the inflectional language you create with the possibilities in Modern English, which lacks the inflections. (Sentence from ex. 2.)

John gave little Bill one peanut.

John gave Bill one little peanut.

Bill gave John one peanut little.

Little peanut one John gave Bill..

What happens to meaning when inflections are removed and word order is changed? Do sentences always result?

3. The Indo-European Languages - 1 day

The forms of speech in the earliest history of Western European cultures remain unknown. However, linguists are able to draw conclusions on the history and development of these language families by reconstructing the earliest forms and by comparing languages on the basis of word stock and structure. This process of comparison has led to the assumption that some languages are related, that they have developed from a common source. For example, certain words in various languages show too much similarity to allow us to call the matter coincidental. Compare at this point some words which might be common in all languages:

mother	Lithuanian moter; Celtic mathair; Latin Mater; Greek meter; Persian matar; Sanskrit matar.
seven	Lithuanian septyni; Celtic secht; Latin septum; Greek lepta; Persian lapta; Sanskrit sapta.
me	Lithuanian manen; all others mee

Compare some additional common words:

night

brother

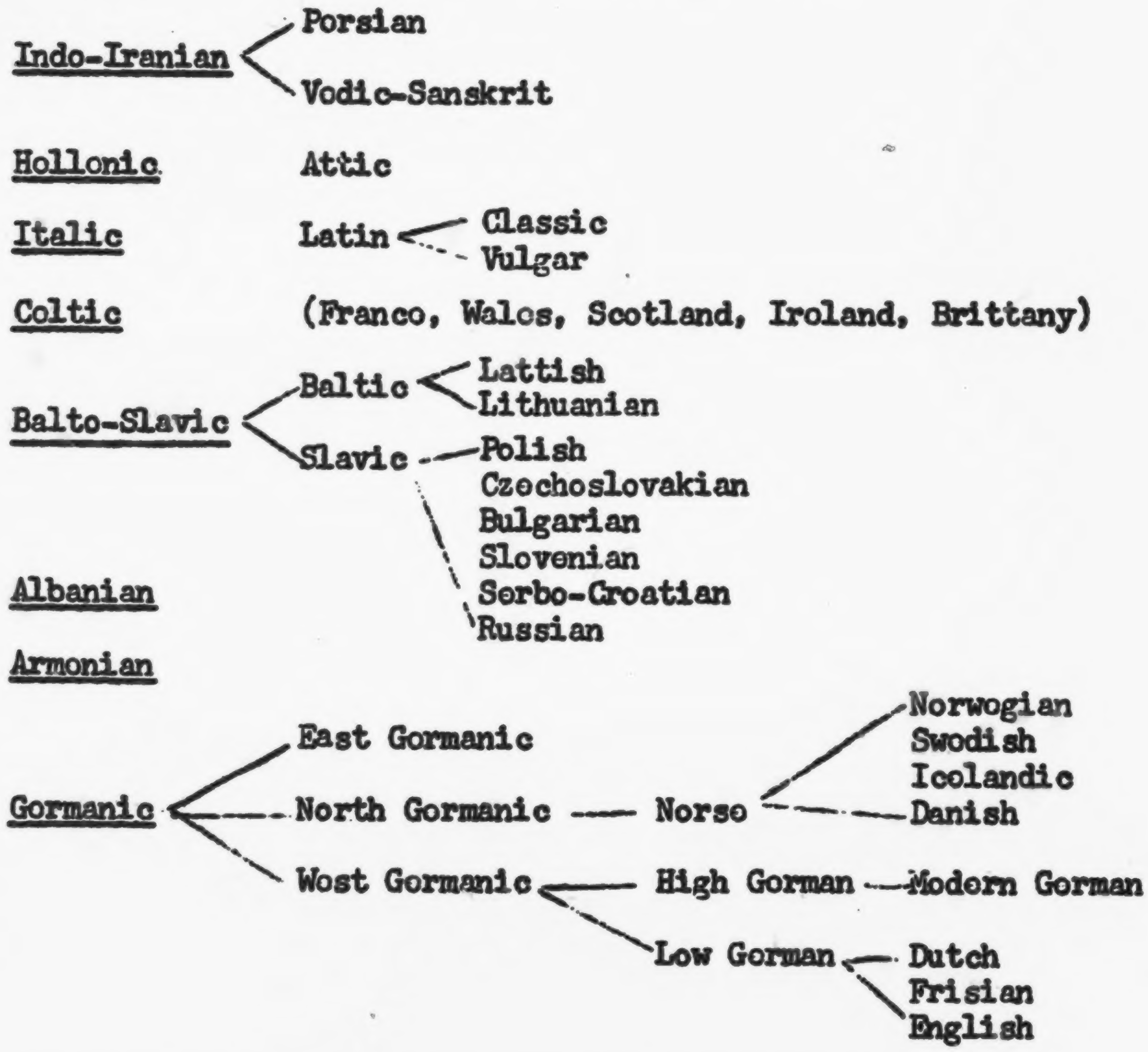
two

Even with as little material evidence as a few common words, we can accept with some confidence that these languages belonged to the same "family," and that these languages must have developed from a common source. Linguists have speculated on the earliest forms of these words, the form which would have existed in the original or "parent" language. Of course there are no written records of this language, but the reconstructed language is intended to approximate that of an oral language thought to exist around 2,000 to 3,000 years before Christ. This hypothetical language is labelled Proto-Indo-European.

Proto-Indo-European, our parent language, is traced geographically to one of three possible areas: 1) Scandinavia and adjacent northern Germany, 2) the Danube Valley, Hungarian plain region, or 3) the steppes of the southern Ukraine, north of the Black Sea.

All languages descending from the Proto-Indo-European show a common word stock and strongly alliterative nature. These languages are all highly inflected.

The general development of the Indo-European language family is outlined in the following chart, summarized from Paul Roberts, *Understanding English* (Harper and Row, 1958), pp. 26-31.


Indo-Iranian
Persian
Vedic-Sanskrit
Hellenic
Attic
Italic
Latin
Classic
Vulgar
Celtic
(France, Wales, Scotland, Ireland, Brittany)
Balto-Slavic
Baltic
Lattish
Lithuanian
Slavic
Polish
Czechoslovakian
Bulgarian
Slovenian
Serbo-Croatian
Russian
Albanian
Armenian
Germanic
East Germanic
North Germanic
Norse
Norwegian
Swedish
Icelandic
Danish
West Germanic
High German
Modern German
Low German
Dutch
Frisian
English

Students might be interested in comparing the above chart with the following:

The Family Tree of Indo-European Languages in Lou LaBrant, *Your Language*, Book 6.

Table of Indo-European Languages in *Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary*.

Genealogy of Proto-Indo-European Language Family in Charles L. Barber, *The Story of Speech and Language* (Crowell, 1964), p. 69.

Students might also report on other parent languages and the evidence that there is more than the one parent language.

4. The Germanic Branch of Indo-European - 1 day

Since Modern English is a descendant of Low German, a knowledge of the general characteristics of the Germanic languages will help you understand some points about the structure of English.

A. German has a simpler verb conjugation involving only present and past tense forms, and strong and weak classifications. Latin verbs have an elaborate conjugation, and tend to be strong or irregular. The verbs of Germanic origin are distinctively weak or regular. These Germanic verbs have an analytical structure, in which separate elements comprise the verb phrase; Latin verb structures are synthetic in that these parts are inseparable. The Germanic verbs retain only the present and past tense forms, the past tense being characterized by the dental suffix ed.

Exercise: List ten regular (weak) verbs and ten irregular (strong) verbs. Check the etymology of each verb in a dictionary. What conclusions can you draw about the language origins of the two types of verbs?

B. Germanic adjectives also have strong and weak classifications rather than the more complex inflections. Adjectives were "strong" when used alone before nouns or as predicate adjectives, and "weak" when preceded by an article or demonstrative.

C. Germanic languages in general show a fixed stress or accent rather than the variable stress in Greek, Latin, or French, where the stress shifts in the genitive or dative from the base to the inflectional ending. The Germanic stress pattern tends to fall on the first or the root syllable of the word. This is what is known as a recessive stress.

This recessive stress led to the slurring or dropping of unstressed vowels. Since inflections are suffix forms, as stress was moved to the base or root, inflectional suffixes were obscured or lost, and a largely monosyllabic word stock was the result.

The process of leveling (removing inflections through removal of stress) is illustrated by the following:

The fixed stress pattern of Germanic words, along with the tendency to stabilize the stress pattern or contour in the entire sentences, led to the removal of the inflectional ending:

Old English godum (good) in "for the good king" was gradually weakened to godan because of the stress on the root syllable.

In Middle English, this became gooden, and then goode. These inflections in all cases utilized the unstressed vowel sound (schwa) regardless of spelling.

In Modern English, the stress of the basic syllable has obliterated the inflectional ending.

Of all the Indo-European branches, then, only the Germanic has the system of fixed stress. This stress upon the most important element, the base or root of the word (regardless of the number of prefixes or suffixes) is one of the greatest strengths of the language branch from which English has descended. This habitual stress pattern enables the language to expand and develop with the culture, without losing its basic strength.

Exercise: Today, words of Germanic origin can be distinguished from Latin, French, or Greek derivatives by observing the fixed stress patterns which are retained in the Germanic roots. Observe the first two illustrations and conclusions, and then complete the remaining items. Verify your findings by checking the etymologies in a dictionary.

Root: Compounds:

1. Derivé derivátion derivátive derivátional

Conclusion: Non-Germanic -- root does not retain stress.

2. Friend befriénd unfriéndly friéndliness

Conclusion: Germanic source, fixed stress on root.

3. love
4. peace
5. electric
6. kin
7. define
8. family
9. photograph
10. civil

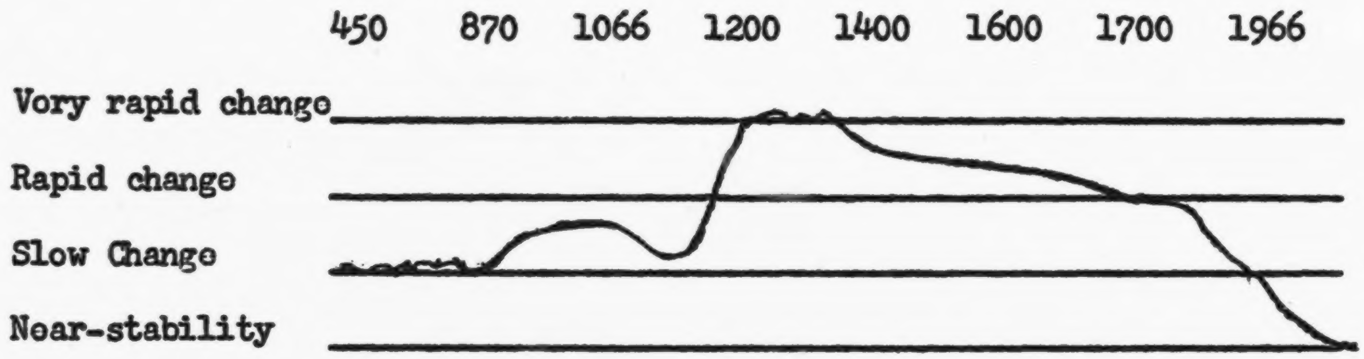
Research: Investigate Grimm's Law, the first Germanic consonant shift (1822).

Examine the alliterative characteristic of early English poetry. Important syllables in a line of verse are bound together by the fact that they begin with the same sound; the effect of this alliterative style is heightened by this fixed stress. Notice too that the caesura (internal pause) is bridged by this alliteration. Find examples in this poetry, and mark the stressed syllables.

5. The Growth and Development of English - 1 day

In addition to the Indo-European and particularly the Germanic characteristics of English, the language shows some pronounced changes and outside influences which contribute to the evolution from Old English to the present.

For reference purposes, Old English is the period from 450-1100 A. D.; Middle English, the period from 1100 to 1500; and Modern English, from 1500 to the present. The following chart illustrates the general levels of change; the outline following will indicate some of the factors that are involved.



A. Early Celtic settlements: Herodotus reports two invasions of the British Isles before the fifth century B. C. These Celtic languages remain in the British Isles today: Welsh and Gaelic.

B. The Roman occupation: Romans reached the Isles about 300 B.C., but the first occupation began under the emperor Claudius in 43 A. D. The occupation lasted until troops were withdrawn to defend Rome in 410.

C. Proto-Germanic invasions: Old English emerged from the invasions by the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes in the period from 400 to 600. Four major dialect areas of Old English appeared by 1066: the Northumbrian and Mercian dialects of the Angles, the West Saxon dialect of the Saxons, and the Kentish dialect of the Jutes.

D. Scandinavian raiders: The Norse-Danish seamen made frequent raids beginning in 787, destroying the beginning Old English literature of the seventh and eighth centuries. Much of this early literature was in Latin; the Christianization of England beginning in the early seventh century had fostered the development of writing. Monasteries and manuscripts had been destroyed, but under the rule of King Alfred of Wessex (870), literature was re-established.

E. The Norman Conquest: In 1066, England was conquered by William, Duke of Normandy. The resultant Middle English language emerged (1150-1475) as a composite from a tri-lingual society: French in literature and in the courts, Latin in the church and legal affairs, and English in everyday communication. English thus remained unrecorded in writing and ignored in formal education; this tended to accelerate the change, particularly in the leveling of forms, and produced a much more simplified grammar.

F. Late Middle English: London's East-Midland dialect came to dominate the northern, west midland, and southern Kentish dialects. The East Midland was used in commerce, in printing (Caxton) and in writing by Chaucer, Malory, and Wyclif.

G. Modern English: From 1476 to the present, the East Anglic or middle class dialect has dominated, being transferred to the New England colonies in the seventeenth century. The London dialect of the aristocracy was transferred to the Southern plantation colonies. The middle class dialect is the general dialect in both the United States and England.

Suggestions for further reading:

Margaret Schlauch's "Growth of the English Language," in *The English Language*, Senior course, ed. by Louis Zahner, New York, Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc. 1966, pp. 260-89.

Paul Roberts, "Something about English," in *Understanding English*, New York, Harper and Row, 1958.

6. Old English - 1 day

Originally, Old English was a highly inflected language; that is, Old English was synthetic in its method of showing syntactic relationships. The language retained masculine, feminine, and neuter genders from the Indo-European. These were grammatical rather than logical; stān (stone) was masculine and giefu (gift) was feminine. Nouns were either strong or weak, depending on whether the stem ended in a vowel or a consonant. Adjectives had strong and weak forms, and also the masculine, feminine, and neuter forms. Even the article the was fully inflected, existing in eleven different forms. Old English relied more on the adjectives and article sē (the) for its case distinctions than it did on the nouns. As the language dropped more inflections, it became increasingly dependent on word order and certain function words which specified syntactic relationships. By Chaucer's time, the language had become more analytical.

Since inflections show relationship of syntax, word order was more flexible in Old English. But the most common order in declarative sentences was that of Modern English -- S - V - O. In Old English, emphasis was the only reason for variety in word order.

Sē mann bohte þone hlāf. Sē mann þone hlāf bohte.

(The man bought a loaf of bread.)

In Old English, these could be transposed to:

O V S þone hlāf bohte sē mann. (More common)

O S V þone hlāf sē mann bohte.

Both Old English and Modern English utilize a definite system of signals to indicate a structural or relational meaning not conveyed by the lexical meanings of the words themselves. Our concern here is to look more carefully at the grammar, the signals which make a sentence the "finished play of word with word." Fries uses the following to demonstrate the structural differences between Old and Modern English.

Glædne giefend lufap God.

(Cheerful giver loves God.)

The present word equivalents of the Old English do not represent the meaning. Old English retains an inflectional signal, *-ne* on *glædne giefend*, to designate that the cheerful giver is the object of God's love. Modern English depends on the word order; while the structural meanings of the two sentences are the same, the formal devices that signal these meanings differ.

The following passages will further illustrate the word order distinctions in Old English. The first is a descriptive passage from *Beowulf* (Grendel's abode), printed in the modern alphabet.

Hie dygel lond
Warigeath, wulf-hleotha, windige naessas,
Frecne fen-gelad, thaet frygen-stream
Under naessa genipu, nither gewiteth
Flod under foldan.

Literal translation: (Note the language similarities.)

They (a) darksome land
Ward, wolf-cliff, windy nesses,
Frightful fen-paths, where mountain-stream
Under nesse's mists nether wanders,
A flood under earth.

Free poetic translation:

Lonely and waste is the land they inhabit,
Wolf-cliffs wild and windy headlands,
Ledges of mist, where mountain torrents
Downward plunge to dark abysses
And flow unseen.

(From *Adventures in Eng[illegible]h Literature*, Laureate edition, Harcourt Brace and World, p. 46.)

This next section is from the opening of the *Colloquy* of Aelfric, abbot of Eynsham, about 990. Literal translations are provided.

Pupil: Wē cildra biddaþ þē, ealā lāreow, þaet þu taēce ūs sprecan rihte, forðam ungelaērede wē sindon, and gewaemmodlïce we sprecaþ. (We children beg thee, oh teacher, that thou teach us to speak correctly, because ignorant we are and corruptly we speak.)

Master: Hwaet wille gē sprecan? (What wish ye to say?)

Pupil: Hwaet rēce wē hwaet we sprecan, būton hit riht spraēc sȳ and behēfe, naes īdel oþþe fracod? (What care we what we say, except it correct speech be and seemly, not idle or worthless?)

Master: Wille gē bēon beswungen on leornunge? (Wish ye to be beaten in learning?)

Pupil: Lēofre is ūs bēon beswungen for lāre þaenne hit ne cunnan; ac wē witan þē bilewitne wesan, and nellan onbelāedan swinelgla ūs, būton þu bī tōgenȳdd fram ūs. (Dearer is to us--i. e. We prefer-- to be beaten for the sake of learning than it not to know; but we know thee kindly to be, and not to wish to inflict blows on us, unless thou be compelled by us.)

From Charles L. Barber, *The Story of Speech and Language*, New York: Thomas Y. Crowell, 1964. p. 137.)

Exercise: What distinction in meaning is there between *thou* and *ye*?
What has happened to this distinction in Modern English?
What is the meaning of *wille*? Notice that it is not a part of the future tense in Old English.
How are negatives expressed in Old English?
Compare the word order of Aelfric's Old English with that of Modern English.

By 1000, certain changes were beginning to affect the language. The multiple inflections were reduced; cases which were originally distinct were beginning to lose identity. Word order was becoming more standardized, and the process of leveling was speeding up.

Exercise: What inherent characteristics of Germanic languages helped to speed the process of leveling in Old English?

What human or social factors in the use of Old English would tend to speed the simplification of inflections and the establishment of word order?

It might seem that Old English, because it reflects a more primitive culture, would be a much simpler language than Modern English. Is this true? Why, or why not?

A comparison of the article in Old and Modern English:

Comparing the articles sē and the will show the complexity of the Old English inflectional system, and the simplification process which Modern English has undergone.

Old English forms:	SINGULAR			PLURAL	
	Masc.	Fem.	Neuter	All genders	
Nominative	sē	sēo	þaet	þa	
Genitive	þaes	þāere	þaes	þara	
Dative	þāem	þāere	þāem	þ aem	(Datives = Indirect Object)
Accusative	þone	þā	þaet	þā	

In Modern English only the exists, whether the noun is nominative, objective, or possessive, singular or plural, or masculine, feminine, or neuter. In Old English, the elaborate inflections are an unnecessary burden.

7. Middle English - 1 day

The major grammatical distinctions between Old English and Modern English appeared during the Middle English period. These differences are: 1) the loss of inflections and the establishment of word order, and 2) the discarding of the grammatical gender for a natural or "logical" gender. Middle English, by 1300, was a domestic language created from three language elements:

1. Norman-French, after 1066, the language of the conquerors, used by the nobles and in the courts until 1362.
2. Latin, the language of the church and of formal education.
3. Old English, the language of the common people, which was rapidly simplified without the restraints of the educated or noble class.

By Chaucer's time, Middle English had far fewer inflections. The tendency was toward a fixed word order, and the positional rather than inflected structure of Modern English is clearly present by 1400. The main causes for this are summarized:

1. Inflections were weakened in Middle English through the mixing of English with Old Norse, a language with a similar word stock but different inflections. With the different sets of inflections, the speakers became doubtful or confused, and began to rely on grammatical signals other than inflections.
2. Unstressed inflectional syllables at the ends of words were weakened or lost. Old English inflectional vowels -*a*, -*u*, and -*e* became the Middle English *e*, and this final *e* itself disappeared as early as the mid-thirteenth century in northern England.
3. Noun declensions were generalized to two forms in Middle English: the declension that in Old English used the nominative

plural *-as* (stanas, "stones") and genitive singular *-es* (stanes, "of a stone") became *-es* for both in Middle English. In northern dialects, the *-es* for nominative plural and genitive singular became the typical forms by 1200. The southern dialects, which used *-en*, gradually lost ground to the *-es*, but traces remain of the -en in Shakespeare's *eyen*, *housen*, and *devlen* (devils), and in Modern English *oxen*, *brethren* and *children*.

4. The following chart will illustrate changes in the noun:

	OLD ENGLISH	EARLY MIDDLE ENGLISH	LATE MIDDLE ENGLISH
Nominative sing.	stān (masculine)	ston	ston
Genitive sing.	stānes	stones	stones
Dative sing.	stāne	stone	ston(e)
Accusative Sing.	stān	ston	ston
Nom. Accus. Plural	stānas	stones	stones
Genitive plural	stāna	stone	stones
Dative plural	stānum	stone(n)	stones
	lufu (feminine)	lufe	love
	lufe	lufe	loves
	lufe	lufe	love
	lufe	lufe	love
	lufa	lufe	loves
	lufa	lufe	loves
	lufum	lufe(n)	loves
Nominative sing.	lim (neuter)	lim	lim
Genitive sing.	limes	limes	limes
Dative sing.	lime	lime	lim
Accusative sing.	lim	lim	lim
Nom.-Accus. pl.	limu	lime	limes
Genitive plural	lima	lime	limes
Dative plural	limum	lime(n)	limes

Nouns (continued)

OLD ENGLISH	EARLY MIDDLE ENGLISH	LATE MIDDLE ENGLISH
hunta (consonant stem)	hunte	hunte
huntan	hunte(n)	huntes
huntan	hunte(n)	hunte
huntan	hunte(n)	hunte
huntan	hunte(n)	huntes
huntena	huntene, hunte(n)	huntes
huntum	hunte(n)	huntes ((hunter in Mod. English)

The same process of loss of the case distinctions took place in the adjectives and articles. The trend was toward the use of two adjective forms, a normal form (e. g. fair) and a form ending with e (faire) used as the plural and the weak form.

STRONG DECLENSION (no demonstratives, noun modifier, or prod. adj.)

	OLD ENGLISH	EARLY MIDDLE ENGLISH	LATE MIDDLE ENGLISH
Nominative, sing.	god (masculine)	good	good
Genitive sing.	godes	goodes	good
Dative sing.	godum	goode(n)	good
Accusative sing.	godne	goodne	good
	god(feminine)	good	good
	godre	goodre, gooder	good
	godre	goodre, gooder	good
	gode	goode	good
	god (neuter)	good	good
	godes	goodes	good
	godum	goode(n)	good
	god	good	good

Adjectives (continued)	OLD ENGLISH	EARLY MIDDLE ENGLISH	LATE MIDDLE ENGLISH
Nom. Accus. pl.	gode, goda, god	goode	goode
Genitive pl.	godra	goodre, gooder	goode
Dative pl.	godum	goode (n)	goode

WEAK DECLENSION (after demonstratives)

Singular -- all genders

goda, (f. n. gode)	goode	goode
godan	goode(n)	goode
godan	goode(n)	goode
godan(n. gode)	goode(n), (n. goode)	goode

Plural -- all genders

godan	goode(n)	goode
godena	goodene, (n. goode)	goode
godum	goode (n)	goode

Changes in pronouns:

PERSONAL PRONOUNS

	OLD ENGLISH	MIDDLE ENGLISH	MODERN ENGLISH
		third person, masculine	
Nominative	he	he	he
Genitive	his	his	his
Dative	him	him	him
Accusative	hine	hine	
		feminine	
	heo, hie	ho, hi, hie, she	she
	hire	hire, here	her
	hire	hire	her
	heo, hie	he, ho, hie	

Pronouns (continued)	OLD ENGLISH	MIDDLE ENGLISH	MODERN ENGLISH
		neuter	
	hit	hit, it	it
	his	his	its
	him	him	it
	hit	hit, it	
		plural, all genders	
	heo, hie	heo,he,ho, hi	they
	hira, heora	hire,heore,here	their
	him, heom	him,heom,hem	them
	heo, hie	heo,he,ho,hi	

Changes in verbs:

The following is a typical paradigm of the weak verb in Old English

	Present		Preterit	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
		Indicative		
1	-e	-ed	-ede	-edon
2	-est	-ed	-edest	-edon
3	-ed	-ed	-ede	-edon
		Subjunctive		
123	-e	-en	-ede	-eden

In Middle English this becomes:

1	-e	-e(n)	-ede	-ede(n)
2	-est	-e(n)	-edest	-ede(n)
3	-eth	-e(n)	-ede	-ede(n)
123	-e	-e(n)	-ede	-ede(n)

In Modern English:

1	---	---	-ed	-ed
2	---	---	-ed	-ed
3	-s	---	-ed	-ed

Notice the loss of distinctive personal endings, and the gradual loss of the strong or irregular verbs. The complicated tenses of Middle and Modern English are built with the help of auxiliary verbs like be, have, and shall.

8. The Structure and Signals of Modern English - 1 day

WHAT MAKES ENGLISH ENGLISH?

Objectives:

1. To help students become aware of language as a system of signals, or rather as several systems of signals fusing to achieve communication.
2. To help students to discover the six types of signals in English; the lexical, the three grammatical, and the two phonemic.
3. To help students realize that the spoken language is primary and written language is an imperfect imitation of the original.

Procedure: The following two pages should be duplicated for the students.

Exercise I is aimed at breaking down the impulse to equate a language with its lexicon plus a bit of organization, as well as to consider the written language as the norm.

Exercise I, part 2, must be spoken by the teacher. Item 1 is merely a Greek transliteration of "happy birthday." Item 3 is French for "(The) winter is cold." Item 9 should be read with the French equivalents: Tees eez eez aht, or possibly Zees eez eez aht. Item 5 is in Latin word order and is not usual in English.

Most students will have a list of signals somewhat as follows for Part 3: words (lexicon), sounds or pronunciation (phonemes), endings (inflections), word order, articles (structure or function words).

After the sentences have been turned into normal English in part 4, use them as a basis for Exercise II. Here the teacher reads the sentences without the suprasegmental phonemes, and again elicits the answers from the students. The answers will be somewhat as follows: tone (pitch), accent (stress), and pause (juncture).

What makes English English?

Exercise I.

Part I. In the first space after each group of words below write E if the group is English, N if it is not English, and P if is is partly English.

		1	2
1.	ςαππι βερθδη	____	____
2.	The equuses curred per the bonumest castellum.	____	____
3.	L'hiver est froid.	____	____
4.	The boy ate the apple.	____	____
5.	On the map Rome and the provinces of Rome we see.	____	____
6.	apple ate The the boy.	____	____
7.	Some murkles, while riffling on the smurk, baskered a krimb, and were snutchened by the arkle lither.	____	____
8.	Three boy eat three apple yesterday.	____	____
9.	This is his hat.	____	____
10.	Boy ate apple.	____	____

Part 2. Now listen as I read the word groups. If you want to change your answer, indicate the change by placing a plus sign (+) in column 2 if the group seems more English than at first, or a minus sign (-) if it seems to be less so.

Part 3. Basing your answers on your reconsidered opinions in part 2, now indicate what was English about each sentence, and what was non-English.

	English	non-English
1.	______________________	______________________
2.	______________________	______________________
3.	______________________	______________________
4.	______________________	______________________
5.	______________________	______________________

Part 3 (Continued)

6.______________________ ______________________

7.______________________ ______________________

8.______________________ ______________________

9.______________________ ______________________

10.______________________ ______________________

Exercise I, part 4. Revise all the word groups into "normal" English sentences.

1.____

2.____

3.____

4.____

5.____

6.____

7.____

8.____

9.____

10.____

Exercise II. As the revised sentences are read aloud, in the space after each number write what you find to be non-English in the sentence.

1.____

2.____

3.____

4.____

5.____

6.____

7.____

8.____

9.____

10.____

9. Research topics and supplementary exercises - 2 days

A. Compare a passage from *The Canterbury Tales* in Chaucer's Middle English with a reliable modern verse translation. What differences can you discover in word order and inflections?

B. There is much discussion about the establishment of a "world language." What syntactic characteristics would you recommend for this universal language? What modern language is most like this language you propose in structure?

C. One instance of a non-English structure persists today in English. It is the placement of adjectives after nouns as is particularly the case in French. Phrases like "blood royal" and "body politic" are in contemporary use; poets frequently use this inversion for effect. What other examples of this inversion can you cite?

D. What factors can you suggest to explain that *whom* is dropping from use at the expense of *who*? Another example of this same trend is the fact that *more* and *most* are spreading at the expense of *er* and *est* suffixes. What is happening to the distinctions between *shall* and *will*, and between *can* and *may*?

E. Inversions in English Poetry:

This section on inversions in poetry may demonstrate that English word order is still quite flexible. However, without the inflections of Old English, the Modern English inversions are sometimes ambiguous. The following lines from poetry illustrate various inversions:

Here subterranean works and cities see ..... (object--imperative)
Bright Thames the brightest beauties yield ... (s--o--v)
What though no credit doubting wits may give ... (o--s--v)
Among the shepherd-grooms no mate/ Hath he ... (o--v--s)
The God who darts around the world his rays ... (s--v--prep--o)

But fortune's gifts if each alike possessed ... (o--conj--s--v)
Unless aside thy people had been thrown ... (adv--s--v)
Swift on his sooty pinions flits the gnome... (adv--prop--v--s)
O thou! Of bus'ness the directing soul ... (prop--n)
Not tyrants fierce that unrepenting die ... (n--adj)

(from Seymour B. Chatman, "Linguistics and Teaching Introductory Literature," in Harold B. Allen, *Readings in Applied English Linguistics*, Second Edition, (New York, 1964), p. 505.)

Locate and analyze other inverted sentences in English. Notice particularly the degree of clarity and effectiveness the inversions achieve.

F. Old English to the Present: Versions of the Sermon on the Mount

Old English, 995

14. Ge synd middan-eardes leóht;
ne maeg seo ceaster beon behȳd
ðe byþ uppan munt aset.

15. Ne hi ne aelaþ hyra leoht-faet,
and hit under cyfe settaþ, ac ofer
candel-staef, ðaet hit onlihte
eallum ðam ðe on ðam huse synd.

16. Swa onlihte eower leoht beforan
mannum, ðaet hi geseon eowre godan
weorc, and wuldrian eowerne faeder
ðe on heofonum ys.

Middle English, 1389

14. Ȝe ben liȝt of the world; a citee
putt on an hill may nat be hid.

15. Nether men tendyn a lanterne,
and putten it vndir a busshel, but
on a candilstike, that it ȝeue liȝt
to all that ben in the hous.

16. So shyne ȝoure liȝt before
men, that thei see ȝoure good werkis,
and glorifie ȝoure fadir that
is in heuens.

1526

14. Ye are the light of the worlde;
a cite that is set on an hill
cannot be hid;

15. Nether do men lyght a candell,
and put it vnder a busshell, but on
a candelstick, and it lighteth
all them which are in the house.

16. So that youre light so shyne
before men, that they maye se youre
good workes, and glorify youre father
which is in heven.

1560

14. Ye are the light of the worlde.
A citie that is set on a hill,
can not be hid.

15. Nether do men light a candel,
and put it vnder a bushel, but
on a candelsticke, & it giueth
light vnto all that are in the
house.

16. Let your light so shine before
men, that they may se your good
workes, & glorifie your Father
which is in heauen.

1611

14. Yee are the light of the world.
A citie that is set on an hill,
cannot be hid.

15. Neither doe men light a candle,
and put it under a bushell: but on
a candelsticke, and it giveth light
unto all that are in the house.

16. Let your light so shine before
men, that they may see your good
workes, and glorifie your father
which is in heauen.

1952

14. "You are the light of the
world. A city set on a hill
cannot be hid.

15. "Nor do men light a lamp and
put it under a bushel, but on a
stand, and it gives light to all in
the house.

16. Let your light so shine before
men, that they may see your good
works and give glory to your Father
who is in heaven."

Charlton Laird and Robert M. Gorrell, English As Language, New York:
Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1961.

English Word Order and Inflection — Study Exercise
Word by Word Translation of OE, 995

14. You are middle-earth's light; nor may the castle (ceaster as in Winchester, meaning camp, town) be hidden that is up on mount (or mound, meaning hill) set.

15. Nor they not make-burn their light-fat (i.e., lamp), and it under sieve basket set, but on candle-staff, that it light all those that in the house are.

16. So out-light your light before men, that they see your good work and glorify your father who in heaven is.

Fill in the corresponding word or phrase in each version.

995	1389	1611	1952
ge			
	ben		
leoht			
	of the world		
		cannot	
			be hid
	putt on an hill		
			a city
------	------	------	------
	Nether men		
		light a candle	
			and put it under
cyfe			
ac ofer candel-staef 5		and it giveth light	
			to all in the house
----------	----------	----------	----------
Swa onlihte eower leoht			
	before men		
		that they may see your good workes (1611)	
			and give glory to your Father who is in heaven. (1952)

Old English to the Present: Versions of the Sermon on the Mount

study questions

I. Inflection

A. List the nouns in each version.

1. Which version lost the most inflected nouns?

2. What parts of speech became important as a result?

B. List the verbs in each version and try to account for some of the changes.

C. List the pronouns in each version. Could you identify person, number, gender, and case of each?

II. Sentence Word Order

A. Which version uses the most inverted sentences?

1. What kind of inversion is it?

2. Does this use of inversion relate in any way to the use of inflection?

B. Which earlier version first had all the sentences in the same order as the 1952 version?

C. What parts of speech introduced into this earlier version helped to establish this sentence word order?

D. At what point did the word order of imperative sentences become fixed?

Of Interest: The *It is me*--*It is I* controversy has a long history dating from the 16th century and illustrating how thought about grammar shifts. OE *Hit eom ic* means "It am I." The sentence is inverted and *I* is considered the subject. As inflections were dropped the Subject-Verb-Complement order became firm and the subject was felt to be *Hit* (but the inflected *H* had been dropped, leaving *it*). Agreement of subject and verb then caused the substitution of *is* for *am*. The final change replaced *I*, the modern form of *ic*, with *me*, the objective form that seems natural after a verb. So now, *It's me* is normal in talking. The French are with us in this. They always say *C'est moi*.

Further suggestions: "Jabberwocky" by Lewis Carroll is a favorite device to point out the import of word-order and function words in determining syntax.

Research Topics: Functional Shift in (name an author).
The History of *Of* and *Off*.
The Origins of the English Linking Verb Forms of *Be*
The Origin and Development of (Name some function word)
Word Order in (the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*)

√

10. Bibliography

Barber, Charles. *Linguistic Change in Present-Day English.* University, Alabama: The Alabama University Press, 1964. The text is devoted to changes in pronunciation, meaning, and grammar. There are teachers' bibliographies at the end of each chapter.

____________. *The Story of Speech and Language.* New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1964. This is a particularly readable presentation of language development from the Indo-European to the present. Many students would find this a profitable book.

Bryant, Margaret M. *Modern English and Its Heritage*, Revised Edition. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1963. The treatment of the heritage of Modern English in the first five chapters, and the presentation of the nature, form, and function of English grammar are helpful. There are further suggestions for student research at the conclusion of each chapter.

Jespersen, Otto. *Growth and Structure of the English Language.* Garden City: Doubleday Anchor Books, 1956. Chapter 9 is a detailed account of the grammatical changes in English.

Lehmann, Winfred P. *Historical Linguistics: An Introduction.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1962. There is a detailed account of the analogical changes in language.

Muinzer, Louis A. "History: The Life in Language," and "Historical Linguistics in the Classroom," in *Illinois English Bulletin*, Vol. 47, no. 8, November, 1960. While these articles treat the overall field of historical linguistics there are many useful items on language structure, and many interesting assignments for secondary students on the general history and development of English pronunciation and meaning.

Pyles, Thomas. *The Origins and Development of the English Language.* New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1964. The text devotes separate chapters to Old and Middle English, and to the forms and syntax of English to 1800.

Schlauch, Margaret. "Growth of the English Language," in *The English Language*, Senior Course, edited by Louis Zahner. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World Inc., 1966, pp. 260-289. The article, intended for the high school student, traces the changes that have occurred in our vocabulary, pronunciation, spelling, and grammar.

III. HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH SPELLING: A. Five-Day Unit

Objectives:

To give some historical explanations for the present chaos

To examine the problem of spelling reform: arguments for and against

To aid students in the development of an understanding of, and sympathy toward, the steady and seemingly capricious changes which occur in language.

Note to the Teacher:

Too often today teachers simply mark misspelled words without attempting to show students why they misspell. One good way of helping students understand their problems is by a brief study of phonemics; showing the relationship between the spoken language and the written language can be very helpful in eliminating misspellings involving omission of syllables, clipping, omission of inflections, etc.

Another approach to the spelling problem is historical. Students will be more likely to develop a sensitivity toward and a sympathy for our spelling system if they understand how it developed. Also, they can move toward a larger goal: the discovery of ways in which a language develops, and perhaps some of the reasons for the changes. At the senior high school level, it is very important that we stress the historical in language as well as the practical. Certainly seniors are told again and again that they should learn to spell correctly so that they can earn more money after they graduate, or so that they can be successful in freshman composition.

Juniors and seniors in high school should study this unit, and the units on spelling which follow, not alone to help them with their own spelling, but to increase their knowledge of their own language and how it operates. Studying the development of the English spelling system can well be its own reward. We should study it because it is the study of our language, of our spelling system.

Historical linguistics is especially useful at the senior high school level. Students respond to the historical, to the analytical, to the inductive. This unit utilizes all three approaches. It can be adapted to the following situations:

Senior English, before or after a unit on Beowulf or Chaucer
Junior or Senior English, after a unit on history of the language
Junior or Senior, after a unit on lexicography (especially one which stresses etymology. See Unit No. IV, "Etymology.")
Junior or Senior, after a unit on Phonemics (See "Phonology" in the N.I.U. series)
Senior Honors, as supplementary material for use with Beowulf, Chaucer, Shakespeare, etc.

Time: Five days, one period a day

First Day:

Some Historical Explanations for the Present Chaos (I. 1--I.5, p.1)
General background on English Spelling

Supplementary teacher materials: The Great Vowel Shift
(Robertson--Cassidy or Pyles)

Student reports:

The development of our modern alphabet (Baugh)

Borrowings from other languages; resultant spelling problems (Baugh)

Class discussion:

Since the dilemma of our spelling remains unsolved, should there be more tolerance of misspellings?

Explain your point of view on the following statement:
A SECRETARY WILL DO MY SPELLING.

For a particularly capable class or individual study:

Spelling and Sound: Diachronic and Synchronic Perspectives (pp. 77

The word lists on page 78 might be duplicated and applied to the individual students. Students might complete the four-column check list individually or in small discussion groups before the results are presented to the class. The teacher might then lead the class to draw the inductions from the chart (page 79 of the exercise).

Approaching the Apostrophe Historically (pp. 80-82)

This exercise provides an excellent sidelight on one of our current orthographic problems. Students might collect some examples of the misuse of the possessive form.

SPELLING AND SPELLING REFORM

I. SOME HISTORICAL EXPLANATIONS FOR THE PRESENT CHAOS

1. That change occurs in language is a fact. Our spoken language, by a process termed linguistic drift, alters in an almost imperceptible way. This process of change should not be considered advantageous or harmful. Changing orthography, then, would not change the spoken language; oral language remains independent of orthographic stabilization or alteration.

2. Christian missionaries brought in the Roman alphabet to replace the runic alphabet of Old English. The Roman alphabet of twenty-three symbols replaced the runic of twenty-four, retaining only the eth (ð) and thorn (þ) for our digraph th, wen (ƿ) for our w, æ for our present short a, and ʒ for some uses of g. The Roman-runic combination thus included twenty-four consonant sounds with seventeen symbols. Vowels, however, used a separate symbol for two or more different sonnds. While our present-day spellings more accurately represent pronunciation of five hundred years earlier, English spelling was not a perfectly phonetic spelling from the beginning.

3. With the Norman invasion of 1066 and continued French military success in the early 1200's, French spelling and vocabulary was assimilated into Old English. The Norman scribes recorded this language, replacing the strange runic symbols with their equivalent forms: æ became a, ƿ became w, the g /y/ sound became y, and th replaced the thorn and the eth. These scribes introduced j, qu for cw, sc for sh, c representing the /s/ sound.

Our "silent gh" in night, through, and flight was pronounced in Old English with a Germanic back spirant which has since disappeared from English pronunciation. Night was taken from the Old English niht, akin to the German nacht. French scribes, perhaps, recorded the *gh* instead of *h*. The *gh* endings in *laugh*, *cough*, and *rough* were changed to /f/.

Spelling did not drop letters to compensate for vanishing sounds; silent letters remain today in *gnaw* (OE *gnagen*), *gnat* OE *gnaet*), *knight* (OE *cniht*).

4. English has traditionally borrowed from other languages, frequently retaining the foreign spellings. Preservation of these spellings was sometimes of etymological significance, but multiple spellings can become a serious matter, as in /feyn/, which has the spellings *fain* (Anglo-Saxon), *fane* (Latin), *feign* (French), and *phane* (Greek, as in cellophane).

5. The sixteenth century gradation of vowel sounds, the Great Vowel Shift, marked the breaking away of English pronunciation from that of other western European languages. Particular vowel characters came to represent many sounds, often overlapping with other characters. The single letters *a* and *e* no longer represented long vowels. By early modern English, inflectional endings were leveled to *e*, and thus the *e* was retained to become a vowel lengthener to distinguish *hope* from *hop* or *mate* from *mat*.

Unfortunately, by the time of the Great Vowel Shift, much attention had been given to stabilizing spelling. Spelling by this time was neither phonetic nor fixed, but the ascendancy of the London dialect and the beginning of printing in the latter half of the fifteenth century had established an orthography which did not reflect the changes of the vowel shift. The emergence of English literature and printing, and the extension of English to replace Latin in religion and law had stabilized spelling to some degree.

Spelling varied according to the education and temperament of the writer, but Renaissance scholars had begun to establish "right" spelling.

Second Day:

Some Historical Explanations for the Present Chaos:
The Human Factors in Spelling (I.6--I.7)

Supplementary material for the teacher: Errors of scribes and printers; problems in the standardization of spelling. (Margaret Schlauch, "Growth of the English Language," in The English Language, Senior Course, Harcourt Brace, 1966.)

Student Reports:

The Samuel Johnson Dictionary and its effect on spelling.

Noah Webster's attempts at spelling reform.

George Bernard Shaw on English spelling.

Class Discussion:

To solve the present spelling difficulties, would it be more sensible to have pronunciation conform with spelling, or spelling with pronunciation?

If the class has studied phonology, the exercise "Just spell it the way it sounds?" might be used at this point. Students might transcribe some additional words as they are pronounced in the various dialects.

6. Early printing contributed to the stability and complexity of English spelling. When Caxton began printing in the 1470's many letters, such as *l* in *would*, were still pronounced. Caxton and his Dutch typesetters caused additional problems in the area of silent letters, however. The Dutch typesetters assumed that since the Dutch word *ghost* used an *h*, the English word did. Their spelling, *ghost*, was retained, and in Dr. Samuel Johnson's *Dictionary* of the eighteenth century, extended to *aghast* and *ghastly*.

As late as Shakespeare's time, it is possible to find manuscripts which suggest that typesetters sometimes added letters at their own discretion to fill out type lines. Today, two-thirds of the words in an unabridged dictionary have at least one silent letter. Fifteen of the first sixteen letters of the alphabet appear as silent letters: he*a*d, lam*b*, indi*c*t, han*d*some, lov*e*, of*f*, *g*naw, shep*h*erd, we*i*rd, *k*nee, sa*l*mon, *m*nemonic, conde*mn*, to*o*, and *p*sychology. *Knickknack* has the distinction of using the same silent letter four times.

7. English scholars of the Renaissance sought to restore etymological spellings of Latin and Greek, often on words that were French. Silent letters appeared in *debt*. *doubt*. *receipt*. *island*. *sovereign*. *and foreign* through false etymological association or faulty analogy.

Sound changes and vocabulary additions continued. Doubled consonants were shortened to modern pronunciation of the single consonant, but one double consonant spelling was retained to indicate a preceding short vowel. The process was inconsistent, however, as *rabbit* and *habit* will illustrate. The letters *u* and *v* were once interchangeable; the *e* was retained after *v* even with the short vowel, to avoid confusion of *lou* and *lov*. *W* was later dropped from pronunciation in unaccented syllables or before r (*toward*, *write*) and *t* became silent in *thistle*, *Christmas*, *often* and *chestnut*.

Samuel Johnson's inaccurate etymologies and artificial respellings are particularly significant in that his *Dictionary* of 1755 established the essential pattern of modern spelling. His restoration of the "saxon *k*", in *critick*, *musick*, *historick*, and *prosaick*, was based on an erroneous etymology. (Noah Webster removed them in his *American Spelling Book*, 1783.)

Third Day:

Efforts at Spelling Reform to 1900 (II.1--II.6)

Supplementary materials for the teacher:

Student reports:

- The success of Noah Webster's spelling reforms
- Benjamin Franklin's "Scheme for a New Alphabet and Reformed Mode of Spelling."
- Efforts at the regulation of language:
  - The French Academy
  - Jonathan Swift, "A Proposal for Correcting, Improving, and Ascertaining the English Tongue."

II. EFFORTS AT SPELLING REFORM

1. The need for spelling reform is easily illustrated. By analogy, George Bernard Shaw created the spelling *ghoti* for *fish* (*gh* as in *laugh*, *o* in *women*, and *ti* in *nation*.). Why not accept *ghoughphtheightteeau* for potato? Use *gh* from *hiccough* for *p*, *ough* to represent *o* as in *dough*, *phth* for *t* as in *phthisic*, *eigh* for *a* as in *neighbor*, the *tte* for *t* from *gazette*, and *eau* as the final *o* from *beau*. Falk S. Johnson suggests *circus* could as understandably have been spelled *psoloquoise*: *c* in *psychology*, *ir* from *olo* in *colonel*, *c* from *qu* in *bouquet*, and *us* from *oise* in *tortoise*.

Or picture a foreigner faced with understanding Upton Sinclair's sentence, "A rough cough and a hiccough plough me through." The newcomer starts, "A ruff cuff and a hiccuff pluff me thruff," or "A roo coo and a hiccoo ploo me throo." We then reveal to him that English has fourteen spellings for *sh*: *sh*oe, *su*gar, i*ss*ue, man*si*on, mi*ss*ion, na*ti*on, suspi*ci*on, o*ce*an, nau*se*ous, con*sc*ious, *ch*aperon, *sch*ist, fu*chs*ia, and p*sh*aw. We must be prepared to make allowances for this foreigner.

2. English spelling reform was attempted as early as 1200. Orm, in a reform tract titled *Ormulum*, suggested a more consistent approach in doubling the consonant after a short vowel to indicate the vowel pronunciation. English had no stabilizing literary tradition at this time, literacy was not widespread, and few teachers were present to prescribe standardization of spelling.

3. With the Great Vowel Shift of the sixteenth century and the resultant loss of correspondence of spelling and pronunciation, reform attempts became more frequent.

1568 - Thomas Smith suggested a thirty-four letter alphabet in *Dialogue Concerning the Correct and Emended Writing of the English Language*.

1569 - John Hart, in An Orthographie, suggested separate characters for the digraphs ch, th, and sh.

1582 - Richard Mulcaster (a teacher of Spenser) wrote Elementarie, the major treatise on spelling in the century. He sought moderation, the establishment of "right writing of our English tung," and explained the futility of purely phonetic spelling. Compromise of ideal and practical was his goal. Substitution of greater difficulty for "correction" was carefully avoided in his list of seven thousand words. Mulcaster's influence on Ben Jonson extended the moderate reform idea to Shakespeare's time. In spite of Mulcaster's influence, spelling was our chief language problem in the Elizabethan period. Renaissance scholars universally recognized that standardization was desirable.

4. The French Academy presented an approach to needed reform in the seventeenth century. An English academy was founded, but the project died with James I.

Interest in an English academy resumed in 1660 with the Restoration. Dryden and twenty-one other scholars and writers sought to remove the superfluous letters; Defoe sought to establish a controlling board of twelve nobility, twelve gentlemen, and twelve "at large" representatives. Swift, in 1712, published "A Proposal for Correcting, Improving, and Ascertaining the English Tongue." The approach was essentially that of"fixing" or standardizing.

Dr. Samuel Johnson's Dictionary in 1755 was to become the major resource for "correctness." The dictionary brought spelling to a reasonably settled state, and in a large sense canonized the unphonetic and traditional spellings. However, there was a good deal of common sense in Johnson's observation that, "Some have endeavored to accommodate orthography better to pronunciation, without considering that this is to measure it by a shadow, to take that for a model which is changing while they apply it."

5. In 1768, Benjamin Franklin published his "Scheme for a New Alphabet and Reformed Mode of Spelling." Franklin intended a phonetic spelling, but felt himself too old to pursue the plan and sought to enlist the help of Noah Webster.

Webster was not at first interested in Franklin's plan, but in the 1780's, Webster began to look more carefully at American spelling, moderating Franklin's more extreme ideas and seeking particularly a distinction of American English spellings.

Etymological correctness, uniformity, and distinction from British spellings were his concern. *Or* replaced *our* in *honor* and *color*; *er* came into *traveler*, . . etc. Maintaining that a difference between English and American orthography "is an object of vast political consequence," he introduced such spellings as *defense*, and *offense*, *ax*, *plow*, *tire*, *story*, *czar*, and *jail* to replace the British *defence*, *offence*, *axe*, *plough*, *tyre*, *storey*, *tsar*, and *gaol*. His 1783 text, *The American Spelling Book*, is estimated to have sold as many as 80,000,000 copies.

6. In 1837, Isaac Pitman and A. J. Ellis developed a "shorthand" phonetics for general use. Their publication, the *Phonotype Journal* (later *The Phonetic Journal*), and their reprinting of the Bible gained considerable attention and support.

The latter half of the nineteenth century brought the American Philological Society's revised spelling list, and by 1898, the National Education Association went on record as supporting the spellings *tho*, *altho*, *thoro*, *thru*, *program*, *catalog*, *prolog*, *etc*. The NEA withdrew their sanction of many of the reformed spellings by 1921, however.

Fourth Day:

Efforts at Spelling Reform: The Present Century (II.7--II.8)

Spelling Reforms that have succeeded (II.9)

Student reports: Recommendations of the Simplified Spelling Board
- Anglic
- George Bernard Shaw's spelling system
- Theodore Roosevelt's intentions on spelling
- the Chicago *Tribune*'s simplified spelling
- Spelling in advertising: brand names

Class discussion:

Is it possible, by means of the present alphabet, to make our spelling phonetic?

What simplified spellings or phonetic spellings would you personally endorse? Which would you oppose? (explain)

It is often suggested that English would be the most suitable world or universal language if it were not for the matter of spelling. Do you agree? What solutions can you offer so that English might thus become a suitable universal language?

7. In the twentieth century, proposals for phonetic spelling have met with little success. The drastic measure of phonetic spellings has given way to attempts for gradual changes without alteration of the alphabet..

The Simplified Spelling Board, organized in New York in 1906 and financed by Andrew Carnegie, began with a list of three hundred rather conservative revised spellings. Dictionaries accepted these simplifications as permissible, and Theodore Roosevelt ordered all government publications to be printed in the simplified orthography. Congress rebelled, however, and the protest drew much unfortunate publicity toward the reform movement. Simplified spelling became a "political football" and the public viewed the reforms as the work of cranks.

The Simplified Spelling Board's recommendations were based on four principles:

1. When current usage offers a choice of spellings, to adopt the shortest and simplest: *catalog*, *gage*, *maneuver*, *mold*, *rime*, *tho*.
2. Whenever practicable, to omit silent letters, as in *activ*, *anser*, *definit*, *det*, *frend*, *scool*, *thru*.
3. To follow the simpler rather than the more complex of existing analogies. Examples: *aker*, *deciet*, *enuf*, *spritely*, *telefone*, *wize*.
4. Keeping in view that the logical goal of the movement is the eventual restoration of English spelling to the phonetic basis from which in the course of centuries and through various causes it has widely departed, to propose no changes that are inconsistent with that ideal.

The beginning of World War I and the failure of Andrew Carnegie to provide financial support for the Board after his death broke the organized effort of the group. The board's second and third lists were more radical than the first, consisting of "clipt, nativ words (which) lookt foren or defectiv." All in all, the effects of this major attempt at simplified spelling are negligible, Reforms such as the Chicago Tribune's list in 1931 failed to gain backing, although as many as two hundred newspapers were at one time or another supporting various reform proposals.

George Bernard Shaw maintained that if the English people had accepted streamlined spelling, they would have saved enough to pay the cost of World War II. Shaw advocated a gradual restoration of phonetic spelling, commenting that "our attempts to make a foreign alphabet of 26 letters do the work of 42 are pitiable."

8. Advocates of spelling reform are quick to point out that English would be the most logical choice for an international language if it were not for the unmanageable spelling. Those who have supported our language as the most acceptable language for world use must apologize only for our spelling; vocabulary and syntax are comparatively easy areas to master.

In the 1930's a Swedish philologist, R. E. Zachrisson, proposed Anglic, an international language based on the English language. Zachrisson attempts a phonetic spelling within the present alphabet, as the beginning paragraph of Lincoln's Gettysburg Address illustrates.

> Forskor and sevn yeerz agoe our faadherz braut forth on this kontinent a neu naeshon, konseevd in liberti, and dedikaeted to the propozishun that aul men are kreeated eequel.

While Anglic spelling was not perfectly phonetic, it was an attempt to bring order to English spelling, and at the World English conference at London in 1930, Anglic was supported as an acceptable auxiliary language and as a basis for the reform of English spelling. Here again, the recommended spellings were seldom accepted: *strugld*, *puur*, *dhus*, *mezher*, *hieli*, *people*, *whedher*, and *fienl* were suggested to replace *struggled*, *poor*, *thus*, *measure*, *highly*, *people*, *whether*, and *final*.

9. A number of simplified spellings have been accepted in the past two hundred years, but the number is hardly significant in relation to the proposals for reform. While aspects of logic and convenience are heavily on the side of spelling reform, reform continues at a show rate. W. L. Werner indicated that of three hundred spellings which Theodore Roosevelt supported in 1906, more than half are now listed as preferred and fewer than fifty are unlisted in Webster's *New Collegiate Dictionary*. Marketing, too, has brought many spellings into existence: Webcor's *Fonograf* and such products as *Ro-Nuz-It* and *Dreme*.

The major arguments against spelling reform are summarized in section III.

Fifth Day:

Opposition to spelling reform (III.1---III.10)

Class discussion: Personal experiences and views on items III.1--III.10

For what general social reasons is spelling reform or simplification opposed?

III. OPPOSITION TO SPELLING REFORM

1. Either the simplification of our present spelling or in the implementation of phonetic spelling is opposed by many: reform upsets "language habits." It is argued that most of the present generation has succeeded with spelling. Re-education in revised spelling is cumbersome and unnecessary . The "old way" is in keeping with established and complicated reflexes of reading and writing. We realize that spelling is unphonetic; thus we do not by habit connect letters with single sounds. We are instead trained to ignore the sounds of speech.

2. Simplification is first associated with carelessness and illiteracy. Simplified spellings are not taken as signs of intelligent progress, but as signs of incompetence or sub-standard education.

Reform is therefore avoided by many who are in a position to exert change: journalists, writers, and teachers. Writers might antagonize their reading audiences with reformed spellings, while teachers might jeopardize their jobs by spelling like illiterates. Henry Bradley, author of On the Relations between Spoken and Written Language, observes that many advocates of spelling reform are hesitant to use these spellings in their profession or personal writings. Thus the average citizen is even more hesitant; what might appear as advanced in the writings of a reputable scholar would be considered substandard in the writings of an average citizen.

3. There are economic and political aspects of spelling reform. In fifty years, a new orthography would render our books as antiquated as are Chaucer's for today's readers. Confusion and expense would be inescapable, and these changes would demand a uniformity and cooperation which is far above our present administrative powers.

4. Simplification disturbs established association or connotation. Buty does not evoke the same response as does beauty in a poetic context. Sir William A. Craigie, knighted for his work in lexicography, expressed doubt that most knights would appreciate the reformed spelling nites or nits.

5. Present spelling is defended on the grounds that many conventional spellings are indicative of the etymologies. Many Latin and Greek technical borrowings bring in unconventional spellings, but the solutions for this problem are obvious: know etymologies or consult a dictionary. (William Dwight Whitney presents an excellent case against this defense of conventional spelling in "How Shall We Spell?")

6. Most attempts at spelling reform have been too minor or gradual. Fragmented change increases resistance to reform, minor alteration being more difficult for the public than "major overhaul." The degree of change is a serious matter. Changing a few spellings does not begin to cope with the discrepancy between sound and spelling. Reformers stop short of bringing enough improvement to warrant the bother, or move to the difficult extreme of a completely phonetic alphabet. Advantages of reformed spelling must be of sufficient force and value to overcome conservatism, indifference, and habit.

7. Spelling must ignore dialect variants. Advocates of purely phonetic spelling must realize that every individual pronunciation differs in some way from every other. With dialect differences, phonetic spelling would create a type of anarchy. If uniform spelling were enforced, these extensive reforms would still leave spelling unphonetic. An opponent of Max Muller's Fonetic Nuz argued that if form were to follow pronunciation, the language of our forefathers would be lost, and " ... if the Fonetic Nuz had been started a thousand years ago, it is safe to assert that nobody would have had either the courage or the time to attempt mastering the history of our language."

The following examples of somatic (natural) change illustrate some additional problems that phonetic spelling would not overcome. Somatic change is the natural tendency of speakers to simplify or economize effort in the following ways:

> Dissimilation, or dropping of sounds: artic, suprise, puticular goverment, picher, satistics
>
> Anaptyxis: the inserting of a vowel between consonants: Henery, gangerene, filum (film), puleez (please)
>
> Aphesis, the cutting of an initial vowel or syllable: possum, squire (esquire), stray (estray)
>
> Metathesis, the changing of sound positions: prespiration, perscription, modren, purty, progidy
>
> Analogy, assimilation of sound, and faulty vowel stress also illustrate problems which would necessarily affect phonetic spelling.

8. Homonyms would lose spelling identification in reformed systems. While right, write, and wright were originally distinguished in both spelling and pronunciation this is no longer true in speech, and critics of spelling reform argue that homographs would render distinctions in meaning even more difficult. (We already have the homographs read, tear, lead, bear, and found. Advocates of reform note that these homographs cause virtually no difficulty.)

9. Spelling is a special phase of writing skill which is presently of more social than linguistic significance. A poor speller does communicate ideas. Unfortunately, at the same time the poor speller conditions our estimate of him, and of the value of his work. Opponents of reform point out that four-fifths of the phonemos in an elementary school vocabulary are spelled by their regular graphemic equivalents; the necessary reform is thus a matter of treating the problems of the individual.

10. We are not yet able to treat the matter of spelling reform adequately.

> A detailed and exhaustive study of the relationship of the English writing system to the English language would itself occupy a fair-sized book. No complete study of this sort has yet been made. When it is, it may lead us to far-readhing revisions of our ways of teaching reading and writing, and perhaps to rational and thoroughly considered reforms in the system itself. As it is, suggested reforms in spelling and other aspects of the writing system are usually based on impressionistic or superficial knowledge, and their advocates have often been nonlinguists like the librarian Melvil Dewey and the dramatist George Bernard Shaw.
>
> W. Nelson Francis, The Structure of American English, p. 450.

Appendixes

1. Additional material to extend the spelling unit to seven days, or to provide supplementary exercise material.
2. Bibliography

SPELLING AND SOUND: Diachronic and Synchronic Perspectives

Notes to the Teacher:

The aim of this project is to provide material which can be used in demonstrating that spelling is a human effort to define one kind of human behavior, spoken language, which insists upon varying both historically and geographically. The material will show sound changes, some of which have been compensated for by spelling changes. It will also show that some rational efforts to "simplify" spelling have been compromises that have failed. It will demonstrate the principle of orthography and many modern orthographic rules. (The teacher should learn or refer to the pronunciation of vowels in Old English and Middle English and two more phonemes.)

The material on Chart I derives from the Oxford English Dictionary which you would enjoy consulting. The dates for each column are not intended to define the period in the language but to include the uses selected. The following page presents inductions which a teacher and class could draw from Chart I. The term "Early New English" perhaps should be replaced by "Early Modern English, "but it derives from Morton W. Bloomfield and Leonard Newmark's A Linguistic Introduction to the History of English (Knopf, 1965). Baugh's History of the English Language is good background for late spelling reform. The material on Chart II derives partly from C. K. Thomas, Phonetics of American English.

SPELLING CHANGES IN ENGLISH WORDS   Chart based on OED

OLD ENGLISH 800-1100	MIDDLE ENGLISH 1250-1400	EARLY NEW ENGLISH 1600-1730	MODERN ENGLISH	PHONEMIC N. CENTRAL N. MIDLAND	1	2	3	4
1. neahȝeburas	noyȝbours	neighbors	neighbors neighbours, Br.	/néybərz/	X	X	X	
2. hlæfdiȝe	louedi ladi	lady	lady	/lédi/ /lehdi/	X	X		
3. plōȝ	plouh, plowh plowgh	plough	plow plough, Br.	/pləw/	X	X		
4. husas	husas, huses	housen houses	houses	/háwzəz/	X			X
5. hlehhan hlæhha		lauch laugh	laugh	/læf/	X	X	X	X
6. ic	ic, ik, ich, yk ych, y, Y, I	ich, I	I	/ay/	X	X		
7. pipor	peopur peper	pepper	pepper	/pépər/	X			X
8. ciccene ciken	chiknes, pl.	chicken chickings	chicken	/čikən/	X	X		X
9. genoȝ	ihoh a-noȝ	ynough anough, enough	enough	/ənə́f/	X	X	X	X
10. fæder	fader	father	father	/faðər/	X	X		
11. blæd	blade	blade	blade	/bleyd/	X	X		X
12. blæc blac	blake blac	blacke black	black	/blæk/		X		X
13. nama	name	name	name	/neym/	X		X	X
14. Hwær	hwere where	wher where	where	/hwér/ /hwehr/		X		X
15. þurh	thurgh, thrughe 1489	through through	through	/θruw/	X	X	X	X
16. eorðan	erthe	earth	earth	/ərθ/	X	X		
17. ūre	oure	our	our	/aur/	X	X		
18. to dæg	to-day	today	today	/tədéy/	X			
19. pokete (Anglo-Norman)	poket	pocket	pocket	/pakit/	X			X
20. jugement (Old French)	iuggement	iudgement judgment	judgment judgement, Br.	/ǰə́ǰmənt/		X		X

*Explanation of four numbered columns on right:

1. Considerable sound change from OE to Early New English..
2. Change in graphic symbol (dropping, adding) or in representation (substituting), OE to Middle English
3. Sound change without spelling change, usually between ME and Modern.
4. Late orthographic fixing: spelling rules.

Inductions which can be drawn from chart,
Spelling Changes in English Words

A. OE to MDN E: Almost all vowels were affected by the "great Vowel shift."

B. OE to MDN E: Many inflexions have altered or disappeared in sound and spelling. 1, 2, 4, 5, 8, 9, 13, 16, 19. (Numbers refer to items on chart.)

C. OE to ME: Digraph *gh* (*ch*) replaces ȝ and h for final "deep throat" sounds: fricatives
ME to MDN E: This sound later disappears or becomes frontal fricative 1, 3, 5, 6, 9, 15.

D. OE to ME: Increased duration of vowel indicated orthographically by an immediately following vowel or a final e.
ME to MDN e: The same orthographics remain to represent the so-called long vowels which are actually different phonemically: /ey, iy, ay, o, uw/ 1, 11, 12, 13.

E. OE to ME: French *ou* replaces many *o*'s and *u*'s graphically, actually representing several differing sounds. 1, 3, 9, 15, 17.

F. OE to MDN E: Either æ represented a variety of sounds in OE or it later divided into several different phonemes. 10, 11, 12, 14.

G. OE to ME: Digraph *th* replaces ð and þ , representing both /ð/ and /θ/.. 15, 16,. Some t's and d's, because of sound change, become *th* in spelling. 10.

H. OE to ME:../h/ initial before *l* disappears in sound and spelling. 2,5.

Numbers refer to chart on first page; letters refer to inductions above:

1. A, B, C. D, E.
2. A, B, H. *u* is used for *v*, which is becoming phonemic.
3. A, C. E.
4. A, B.
5. A, B, C. H. Mimicking of sound now lost. Did spelling change influence the sound of this word?
6. A, C. As late as Shakespeare, *chill* wasa contraction for I will.
7. Doubling consonant to retain short sound of vowel.
8. A, B. *Chi* now orthographic for *ci*, but no sound change.
9. A, B, C, E. *ge-* becomes *y-* in past participles (then disappears). Is this analogous?
10. A, F, G.
11. A, D. F.
12. D, F. /k/ after vowel becomes *ck* in final position, orthographic sign for a modern "short" vowel.
13. A, D. Possibly ME spelling analogous to *blade* influenced later pronunciation.
14. F. *Wh* spelling replaces *hw*, though phonemically unchanged /hw/.
15. A, C, E, G. *Ru* replaces *ur*.
16. A, B, G. *Ea* is a Caxton graphic: *cf.*, *head*, *bread*..
17. A, B. E.
18. A. *Y* was a later graphic; the final sound /ə/ probably was lost early.
19. A, B. *cf*. 12.
20. A. *J* consonant graphic was a later addition and doesn't represent a sound change. *Dg* was a later orthographic for /j/, which does (or doesn't) replace the French orthographic *ge*, as you prefer.

APPROACHING THE APOSTROPHE HISTORICALLY

Purpose: To attempt to interest students in the possessive by studying its origins.

Use: Particularly appropriate for students who have read Chaucer's *Prologue*. (Line references to the *Prologue* are included for the teacher's use. These will not match the lines of the modernized versions in anthologies, but they should assist in finding the context.)

Place on the blackboard or overhead projector:

Ful worthy was he in his *lordes* werre 1)
... have at his *beddes* heed twenty bookes 2)
Reed as the brustles of a *sowes* erys 3)
... in a glas he hadde *pigges* bones 4)

1) line 47 -- speaking of the Knight (*werre* is *war*)

2) lines 293-4 -- speaking of the Clerk's room at Oxford

3) line 556 -- speaking of the red hairs in the Miller's wart

4) line 700 -- speaking of the Pardoner's relics

Procedure:

After placing the four examples on the blackboard or screen, the teacher can direct student discussion of the genitive in Chaucer's time. The class should

1) read and understand the content of the examples.

2) discuss the genitive (possessive) forms observed -- *lordes*, *beddes*, *sowes*, *pigges*. What have the four of them in common?

3) notice the absence of the apostrophe. Do you miss it because you depend on it as a signal?

Now the question can be raised: What is an *inflected* language? Perhaps some Latin student will be glad to explain *case* in general and the *genitive* in particular. The teacher can add that Old English was a fully inflected language, requiring translation before we can read it. Chaucer's English, known as Middle English, has fewer inflections. This simplification process is known as leveling.

Place on worksheet, blackboard, or overhead projector:

	Old English	Middle English	Modern English
	sing.	sing.	sing.
Nom.	stan	stan	stone
gen.	stanes	stanes	
Dat.	stane	stan	-----
Acc.	stan	stan	-----
	pl.	pl.	pl.
NomNom.	stanas	stanes	
Gen.	stana	stanes	
Dat.	stanum	stanes	-----
Acc.	stanas	stanes	-----

Students should be told that these are not the only forms -- there were other declensions and alternate endings. Pronunciation note: The long a in Old English indicates an ah sound. In both the O.E. and the M. E. all letters were sounded: e.g. stanes is two syllables.

Students should be led to fill out the three missing forms in the Modern English column. (The four which no longer exist in our language have already been marked out in the chart.) They should appreciate how leveling has worked to simplify speaking and writing for them.

Discussion will now bring out that we have still not explained how the apostrophe came to be inserted in the form. Shakespeare had none; he wrote "the mornings danger," "Helens beauty," "natures truth," "Hyperions curles." Modern printers insert the apostrophe in his plays.

By the seventeenth century, people were largely unaware of the original Old English genitive ending, just as your students probably were until today. The idea gradually developed that it was a shortened form of his, as in "the Emperor, his Court," an example from the 1692 edition of Ben Jonson's Grammar. A rule was given there calling for changing the form to "the Emperor's Court" -- "thereby to avoid the gross Syntax of the Pronoun his joining with a Noun." Thus what was felt to be a sign of the omitted letters hi became our common sign of the possessive. Eventually the use of it in the plural possessive followed.

If the teacher wishes, this could be a place for discussion of errors in the use of the apostrophe. Examples are easily found in advertisements, signs, etc.

Put on worksheet, blackboard, or overhead projector:

One Special Case -- *It's* and *Its*

Third Person Neuter Singular Pronoun

	Old English	Middle English
Nom.	hit	hit
Gen.	his	his
Dat.	him	---
Acc.	hit	hit

(These are only the most common forms.)

Class discussion should be led along the lines that in unstressed positions the *h* sound weakened and by the beginning of the modern period *it* was the usual form for subject and object. The possessive, however, was still *his*. This continued until the middle of the seventeenth century. Shakespeare has Portia say "How far that little candle throws *his* beams." The King James Bible has "If the salt have lost his savor, wherewith shall it be salted?"

However, at the same time there was a tendency to develop the form *its*. It was probably used colloquially for some time before it appeared in print in a 1597 book of madrigals. The King James Bible, however, does not use *its*. It uses *of it* or *thereof* in places where, to us, *its* would seem more natural. "Two cubits and a half was the length of it." "Nine cubits was the length thereof." Shakespeare sometimes used *it* as a possessive. Horatio says of the ghost: "It lifted up it head." The fool in *King Lear* says: "The hedge-sparrow fed the cuckoo so long that it had it head bit off by it young."

Its was gradually accepted. When apostrophes became common, they were added to the personal pronouns as well as to nouns, with the result that what we now know as *its* was written *with* an apostrophe until about 1800.

As for the contraction *it's* from *it is*, it too is a recent development. Earlier the contraction was usually '*tis*, and there were many similar forms: '*twas*, *to't*, *for't*, etc.

Afterword to the teacher:

This unit has not attempted to teach proper use of the apostrophe, but of course there is ample opportunity for the teacher to do as much of this as he feels is needed.

If any students wish to do a little further research, one can look up won't in the dictionary to account for the o. Another can bring a rather surprising report showing that he don't occurred many years before he doesn't. Refer to English Journal XXXVI (1947), p. 372, "An Example of Prescriptive Language Change: 'Don't' to 'Doesn't'."

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III. HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH SPELLING: B. Four-Day Unit.

Objectives:

To provide a historical explanation for spelling today

To help students discover how language changes

To help students discover how English spelling has changed

To help students with their own spelling

To the Teacher: (Read the Note to Unit I as preparation)

This unit consists of a series of exercises designed to help students form certain generalizations concerning the language, in particular the spelling system of the language. This unit uses the inductive method.

The unit is ideally adapted to the following situations:

Senior English, after Spelling Unit I

Senior English, as an enrichment exercise

Junior or Senior English, before or after a unit on Beowulf or Chaucer

Junior or Senior English, after the unit on phonemics

As material for a senior honors class

Day One: Examine the following three versions of the Lord's Prayer:

The spelling of the originals has been preserved. Old English letters were different in some respects from modern English letters, but in the versions below, modern type is used to reproduce them. A few letters will seem foreign to you; the letters which have not survived are these:

1. þ and ð are the equivalents to th in this and think. In later Old English they were used interchangeably.
2. ȝ was used for various sounds like the y in yellow, for sounds now indicated by h or g, and for a sound which we have lost. (This last sound is similar to the kh of modern German.)
3. æ was somewhat like our aesthetic, and was pronounced like the a of hat.

Exercise I:

This lesson should be a class discussion of the three versions of the Lord's Prayer with the purpose of arriving at generalizations which can be studied in depth in later lessons.

Three "starting" items are listed here, to which the class should add as many as possible.

1. How many words change and in what ways?
   (e.g. fæder, fadir, father)
2. What generalizations can you arrive at about v, u, y, i?
3. What generalizations can you make about final e?

West Saxon c. 995	Wyclif 1380	King James 1611
Fæder ūre,	Oure fadir	Our father
þu þe eart	that art	which art
on heofonum	in heuenes	in heaven,
sie ðin nama	halewid	hallowed be
gehālgod	be thi name	thy Name,
Tō-cume	Thi kyngdom	Thy kingdome
þin rice	come to	come
Geweorðe	Be thi wille	Thy will be
ðīn willa	don in erthe	done.
on eorðan	as in heuene.	in earth,
swā swā	ȝeue to us	as it is
on heofonum.	this day	in heaven
Ūrne gedæghwǣmlican	oure breed, ouire other	Giue vs this day
hlaf sele ūs	substaunce,	our dayly
to dæg.	& forȝeue to	bread.
& forgief ūs	vs oure dettis,	& forgiue vs
ūre gyltas,	as we for-	our debts,
swā wē for-	ȝeuen to oure	as we for-
giefað æ̅lcum	dettouris	giue our
þāra þe wið	& lede us not	debtors.
ūs agyltað.	into tempta-	& leade vs
Ne gelǣd þu ūs	cioun: but de-	not into
on costnunge,	lyuer us	temptation,
ac ālies ūs	from yuel.	but deliuer
of yfele.		vs from euill.

Day Two: Exercises 2, 3, 4, and 5

Exercise #2:

The English language underwent changes in spelling from the period of the early Saxon writings. Each of the first writers, having no other guide than the ear, followed his own judgment or his fancy. Thus, a great number of the Saxon words were written by different authors with different letters. Some of the words were written in two or three different ways. Queen was written cwen, kweine, cuhweene; world could be werld, weorld, or world.

In Old English the article the could be spelled in the following ways:

sē, ðæs, ðæm, ðone, ðȳ, ða, ðara, ðæt, sēo, ðǣre.

What could be the reasons for all these spellings?

Exercise #3: Compare the following passages. How many spellings can you find for a single word?

1389 Blissed be the mercyful men, for thei shuln get mercye.

1526 Blessed are the mercifull, for they shall obtyne mercy.

1560 Blessed are the merciful: for thei shal obtaine mercie..

1582 Blessed are the merciful: for they shal obtayne mercie..

1611. Blessed are the mercifull: for they shall obtaine mercie.

1952 Blessed are the merciful, for they shall obtain mercy.

Exercise #4: Now let's look at another set. What do you notice about the final e?

Blessid be the mylde men, for thei shuln welde the earthe.

Blessed are the meke, for they shall inheret the erth.

Blessed are the meke, for they shall inherite the earth..

Blessed are the meeke: for they shall possesse the land.

Blessed are the meeke: for they shall inherit the earth.

Blessed are the meek, for they shall inherit the earth..

The e seems to be a problem.. Should it be discarded or retained? In a vast number of modern words the e has been dropped. This change is an improvement since it has no sound in modern pronunciation. (certaine - certain, goodnesse - goodness) However, we still have many words with a retained e (determine, genuine, examine, doctrine). How can we account for these apparent inconsistencies?

Because English has always had a tendency to shorten pronunciation, there exist in our spelling many silent letters which were originally pronounced. The most obvious example is the final e, which was usually pronounced in Chaucer's time. An example is the word swete.

Exercise 5:

Think of at least three words to illustrate each of the following silent letters:

e - (famine)
t - (often)
b - (doubt)
h -(eight)
k - (knob)
p - (pneumonia)
s - (island)

Day Three: Exercises 6, 7, 8, and 9.

Perhaps one of the chief reasons for the inconsistencies in the English language is the diversity of sources of English words preserving graphic conventions from different writing systems.

/feyn/	fain	Anglo-Saxon
	fane	Latin
	feign	French
	phane	Greek

The Angles, the Jutes, and the Saxons pronounced what was essentially the same language in different ways. When the language was written, it was spelled differently. The Anglo-Saxons found the Latin alphabet better than their Germanic runes and applied it to Old English. The worst tangle, of course, came with the Norman Conquest. The Norman-French spelling was used for English and the English for the Norman-French. A good example of this is our troublesome spelling gh.

The Anglo-Saxons had a sound which they spelled h, a sound made by running k and h together, sort of a throat-clearing sound. When the Normans arrived, they introduced their own ways of spelling. Since they had no sound for this English h, they spelled it in various ways, one of them being gh. The result of all this growth and change is that the English language is perhaps the most mixed-up in spelling of any of the major languages of the world. The gh spells f in rough, has no sound in right, but shows that the vowel is long, and seems to have no use in through. In no other language is it possible to have so many different sounds out of a combination of written letters.

Exercise #6: ough has seven different sounds. Try to list them.

1. dough (cough, bough, brought, rough, through, thorough, hiccough)

Exercise #7: List as many of the spellings of the following letters or letter combinations as you can think of.

1. k - accounting, liquor
2. sh - sugar, ocean
3. e machine, field
4. j - judge - age
5. v - of, Stephen
6. offer, cough

Another reason for our unique spellings can be attributed to the changes which have occurred in the pronunciation and the distribution of English phonemes without corresponding graphic changes, as illustrated by the falling together in pronunciation of the originally distinct right, write, wright.

Critics of English have often poked fun at our system by originating "way out" spellings of common words. For instance, what is there to prevent us from spelling speak as zghoequ?

z as the s in quartz

gh as the p in hiccough

oe as the e in amoeba

qu as the k in liquor

Exercise #8: List five common words and another possible spelling for each.

Students have seen that English spellings have changed considerably over the years. The question may well arise as to any need, then, for standardized spelling.

Exercise #9: Tell each student to write three or four sentences on one subject. Students are to be as original as possible in their spellings. Such an example as this one may be put on the board to get them started: "Hwonn thuh Ingglissh lannggwidge wuzz jungrr, itt wuzz vehree dyffruhnt phrumm thuh langgwidge ovv 2da."

Day Four:

Discussion of individualistic spelling confusion produced in the papers resulting from exercise 9.

Brief study of Anglic and other proposed spelling reforms

(Refer to Spelling Unit A, the Five-Day Unit.)

By exchanging the papers resulting from Exercise 9, and trying to read what the others have written, students can see that individualistic spelling creates confusion. A need for standardization in spelling becomes more desirable.

At this point, students may be given a copy of the "Gettysburg Address" as written in Anglic, a scheme devised to renovate English spelling.

Lincoln'z Gettysburg Speech

> Forskor and sevn yeerz agoe our faadherz braut forth on this kontinent a nue naeshon, konseevd in liberti, and dedikaeted to the propozishun that aul men ar kreaeted eequel.
>
> Now we ar engaejd in a graet sivil wor, testing whedher that naeshon, or eni naeshon soe konseevd and soe dedikaeted, kan long enduer. We ar met on a graet batl-feeld of that wor. We hav kum to dedikaet a porshon of that feeld as a fienl resting-plaes for those who heer gaev their lievz that that naeshon miet liv. It is altogedher fiting and proper that we shood do this.

Questions will arise as to the origin and scheme of Anglic and to its acceptance. In fact, students may want to work out the next few lines of the address. At this point, certainly, students can be directed to examining other serious contributions to spelling.

Note: For the Bibliography, see the end of Unit III A.

IV. ETYMOLOGY: Ten-Day Unit

Note to the Teacher:

This unit on etymology could well follow work in lexicography at the sophomore level; or it could serve as an introductory unit to more detailed study on the historical development of English; or it could well come after the study of Beowulf and before Chaucer and Shakespeare; or it could be placed after work in morphemics.

The unit contains several exercises which may be used variously by students. Some may do them all, whereas most will do only some of them, depending on time and on teacher assignments. Some of the exercises may be studied in class; some should be written; some will be discussed through group work or by having oral reports on the material. These exercises and activities can be and should be tailored to fit the class requirements and needs. (Some of the exercises may well be used as tests.)

The entire unit can be accomplished in ten days; if all activities are performed and special projects assigned, however, another week may be involved, although most of this work would be done out of class.

Suggested time allowances for the average class are:

Lesson One - - one day
Two - - two days
Three - one day
Four, Five - - one day

Lesson Six, Seven - one day
Eight - one day
Nine - - one day
Ten - - two days

Information and exercises for the etymology unit are adapted from Hixson and Colodny's Word Ways, Baugh's A History of the English Language, and Robertson and Cassidy's The Development of Modern English.

INTRODUCTION

Processes of Word Development

Composite Character of English

The English language is composed of words from many different sources, from the languages of many other peoples with whom the English people have had, either directly or indirectly, economic and cultural relations at different times in history. English is the descendent of Anglo-Saxon, often known as Old English, which was brought to the isle of Britain by the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes in the fifth century. Though English is basically Anglo-Saxon, it is largely composed of words from many other languages.

Etymology Defined

Etymology is the analysis of the origin of words by tracing the roots of the words and/or earlier forms of the words in the parent language.

Purpose of the Study

Etymology may make for precision in writing and reading by helping one to discriminate among words that are sometimes misinterpreted as synonyms. It may make the meanings of words richer and more picturesque. It is a fascinating study in itself to investigate the derivation and cognate relationships of words, not to mention the practical contribution to one's vocabulary.

Objectives

1. To observe certain principles that show how words develop.
2. To note the historical development of English in order to understand when and where principal contributions were made.
3. To show how certain representative words are built from basic roots.

Sources

For our purposes the following works are recommended. Not all of these will be available; however, the student should determine their availability and be acquainted with the kinds of information they contain.

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LESSON I

Historical Development of the English Language

The early forms of speech in the British Isles are relatively unknown. However, the series of invasions within historic times have produced records enabling linguists to trace the resultant language changes.

The following notations indicate some of the most dramatic periods of pronounced language change and subsequently the basic language changes.

I. CELTIC -- Two groups of Invasions; before fifth century B.C.
(known to Herodotus)
one group - old form of present GAELIC
one group - old form of present WELSH

II. LATIN -- Roman influence 300 B. C. - 400 A. D.; conquest
in first century A.D.

III. PROTO-GERMANIC -- Series of invasions by Angles, then Saxons,
then Jutes - 400 A.D. - 600 A.D.
Four major dialects:
Angles -- Northumbrian and Mercian dialect
Saxons -- West Saxon dialect (most numerous manuscripts of these)
Jutes -- Kentish dialect

IV. SCANDINAVIAN -- Norse and Danish invasions 787-850 A.D.
and to 1066 A.D. (sporadically)

V. OLD FRENCH -- The Norman Invasion 1066 A.D.
MIDDLE ENGLISH developed 1150-1475; educated people were tri-lingual.
French -- used for literature, court affairs
Latin --- used for church and legal affairs
English - used for common communication

VI. LATE MIDDLE ENGLISH - EAST MIDLAND DIALECT of London began to dominate over northern, west midland, and Southern Kentish dialects; this dialect used in commerce, used by Caxton in printing (1476), and by Chaucer, Wycliff, and Malory.

VII. MODERN ENGLISH -- 1476 - present
Two periods:
1. Development of two major dialects:
   A. The EAST ANGLIC of the Middle Classes (Later this dialect was transferred to the New England colonies of America.)
   B. The LONDON dialect of the Aristocratic Classes (Later this dialect was brought to the Southern colonies of America.)
2. Present dominance of Middle Class dialect in England and in the United States.

(Students should use maps to locate areas important to the development of English: They should also trace English on the family tree of Indo-European languages. The tree diagram is to be found in several texts, among them LaBrant, et al, Your Language (Book 6).)

Activity One

Look up the history of the words in the list below and explain the origin of the word. Briefly describe the limitation or expansion which would be put upon our use of the word if we used it today in the same sense in which it was then used.

Example: dilapidated -- (L. lapis stone. It could only refer to a stone structure fallen into decay.)

candidate

bonfire

slay

knave

deer

girl

book

virtue

picture

butcher

sail

drive

quarantine

companion

starve

coast

liquor

arrive

villain

libel

pretty

nice

fond

Activity Two

At one time the words in each group were synonymous. Using a dictionary of etymology, determine what each group had in common and how each word has taken on specialized meaning in Modern English.

animal - beast - deer

bird - fowl

dog - hound

boy - knave

chair - stool

sly - crafty - cunning

bucolic - rural - rustic - provincial

peasant - boor - churl

varlet - knave - imp

Activity Three

All of the following words are synonymous, but each is supposedly used in only a particular situation. Can you guess what their common meaning is? Using a dictionary, determine the precise meaning of each. What do they tell you about the changing nature of the country?

herd
drove
flock
school
pack
covey
swarm
nye
cote
sord
wisp

gaggle

kennel

LESSON II

Celtic Element

Historical Background

The Celtic language group is found in Wales, Western Ireland, the Scottish Highlands, and that part of France called Brittany. Because Celts lived in the British Isles prior to the coming of the Anglo-Saxons, we find a few traces of Celtic language surviving the successive contributions of Romans, Anglo-Saxons, Normans, and Danes.

(Consult Baugh or Robertson for further information.)

Activities

1. Explain historically why some Celtic words have entered English through French..
2. Account for the relatively small importance of Celtic influence in modern English.
3. What conclusions can you draw regarding the fact that we have no Celtic words for horse, cow, or other domestic animals?
4. What words indicate that the ancient Celts were people of some cultivation?

Suggested Word List:

shanty
dune
slogan
clout
cairn
glen
crock
slough
darn
shamrock
cradle
bannock

Latin

Background

It is almost impossible to speak or write an English sentence without using some words of Latin origin. Most of the Latin words we find in modern English came along after Caesar's conquest of Britain in 55 B. C. Many came through Norman-French, a thousand years later, and through the revival of classical learning, nearly fifteen hundred years later. Latin words are entering our language even today, especially through science. Seventy-five percent of the words of the English language are non-native. Half of the vocabulary consists of words of Latin origins, borrowed either directly from the Latin or from the Latin through French..

Important contributions especially lie in areas of trade, military and religion.

Activity One

By studying common Latin prefixes and bases, you can increase your word power. Determine the meaning of each prefix and base; then find words built with them.

Prefix

a, ab
ad
ante
bi
circum
con, col, com, cor
contra
de
dis
e, ex
extra
in, il, im, ir
inter
intra
ob
per
post
pre

Base

rupt
cide
string, strict
vor
viv
tort, tors
vict, vinc
fract
frag
omni
flect, flex
ten, tin, tent
mand, mandat
cred, credit
fid
grat
mor, mort
corp

Prefix	Base
preter	duc, duct
pro	secut, sequ
re	cur, curr, curs
retro	gress, grad
se	pod
semi	tact, tang
sub	prehend, prehens
super	ject
trans	vert, vers
ultra	mis, miss, mit, mitt
vice	locut, loqu
	fer

Acyivity Two

1. Give some words which indicate the nature of early Roman interests in Britain, such as port, alms, wall ...
2. To what extent is English dependent upon Latin for its vocabulary in student conversation or writing?
3. In Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, under "Common English Christian Names," find the original meanings of the names Patricia, Peter, Clara, Stella.
4. Find the literal sense originally existing in these words of Latin origin:

tribulation	internal	candidate
calculate	rival	investigate
opportunity	ruminate	library

5. Analyze for Latin vocabulary this definition from Dr. Johnson's Dictionary:
"Network: anything reticulated or decussated at equal distances with interstices between the intersection."

LESSON III

Anglo-Saxon Period

Background

Shortly after the removal of Roman troops to help defend Rome about 410 A.D., certain Germanic tribes from the continent came to the island of Britain. Within a few years they occupied over half the island. The island became known as Engla-land, from the Angles, who with the Saxons and Jutes made Britain their home. Since we are so close to Anglo-Saxon, our words for intimate situations or times of stress are words derived from the native Anglo-Saxon.

Activity One

Determine the meanings of these prefixes, suffixes, and bases and find words which contain them:

Prefix	Suffix	Base
A	-wise	anent
with	-dom	anon
be	-some	behest
	-ling	beholden
		behoove
		betimes
		heath
		wane
		warlock
		warp
		wax

Activity Two

For each Anglo-Saxon word given below find a corresponding word of Latin origin:

beget
begin
behead
bless
chew
drink
eat
free

shorten
soothe
spit
sweat
think
burden
fire
food

greed
home
mirth
shame
shard
sorrow
theft
wedding

Activity Three

1. What can you deduce about Anglo-Saxon life from such words as lord, lady, fellow, fee, steward, barn, churl or such idioms as kith and kin, wax and wane, spick and span, give up the ghost, give something to boot?
2. Where do we get the names England and English?
3. How long did the Anglo-Saxon period cover?
4. To what language family does Anglo-Saxon belong?

LESSON IV

Danish Contribution

Background

In 793, a Danish fleet landed in Britain and sacked some monasteries. There were invasions and battles with the Angles and Saxons until the Treaty of Wedmore in 878 made the districts in the north and northeast of England Danish. Battles and invasions continued, however, until the establishment upon the English throne, from 1016-1042, of a Danish dynasty.

Danish influences can be seen today in English place names, in the older ballads (such as Robin Hood ballads), and in some of the simplifications which took place in Anglo-Saxon.

Activity One

1. Give words of Danish origin suggesting the ruthless character of the Danes.
2. What words suggest the legal authority of the Danes?
3. How does fellow indicate that taxes were once paid with cattle?

Norman-French Contribution

Background

The Normans, led by William the Conqueror, overthrew King Harold in 1066. To maintain control, they set up castles as military fortresses and created a Norman ruling class of aristocracy. These people enjoyed authority and leisure and introduced words of a refined nature into the country. The Norman-French language was used by the court, by the legal profession, and in the schools and homes of Anglo-Normans. The bi-lingual situation produced many Anglo-Saxon -- Norman parallels which survived. For examples there are:

Anglo-Saxon		Norman Parallels
ox	-	beef
swine	-	pork
sheep	-	mutton
calf	-	veal
abet	-	aid
moot	-	assemble
kind	-	nature
board	-	table
kind	-	gentle
king	-	sovereign
churl	-	servant
buy	-	purchase
work	-	labor
forefather	-	ancestor

ivity One

Give the meanings of the following words and use each in a sentence.

chic
debonair
naive
nonchalant
elite
entrepreneur
ingenue
elan
ennui

finesse
legerdemain
rapport
canard
cliché
precis
faux pas
mirage
vignette

Activity Two

1. To what language family does the Norman-French contribution belong?
2. How does curfew suggest the legal regulations which the Normans made in England?
3. To what is dandelion a comparison?
4. How does chivalry compare to man and horse?
5. What was the function of the squire?

LESSON V

Oriental Words

Background

The crusades to the Orient of the eleventh, twelfth, and thirteenth centuries brought back to Europe new ideas from the places the crusades passed through along the way. For these ideas and objects the pilgrims brought back the words. Hence we have caravan from the Persian kārwān, magazine from the Arabic makhazan, orange from the Persian narang, and other Oriental words for cloth and clothing (shawl, taffeta, cotton, mohair, turban); food (lemon, peach, orange , sherbet, candy, sugar, coffee); mathematical terms (algebra, caliber, cipher); astronomy (azimuth, nadir, zenith); and chemistry (alchemy, alcohol, alkali, chemistry).

Words from the Dutch

Background

By the fifteenth century, many workers had set themselves up in towns as weavers, dyers, etc. These English workers traded with foreign countries. By the sixteenth century commercial contacts had contributed many words to English from Dutch.

Italian Contributions

Background

The Renaissance is reflected not only in the many words entering English from Greek and Latin, but in many Italian words as well. Many of these words reflect the English diplomatic, commercial, and cultural relations with Italy:

General Words -- bulletin, carnival, contraband, umbrella, stiletto

Military Terms -- cavalry, colonel, fracas, pistol, scamper

Architectural Terms -- colonnade, corridor, cupola, dome, fresco, piazza

Artistic Terms -- cameo, miniature, palette

Musical Terms -- alto, concert, contralto, duet, fugue, opera, solo, violin

Literary Terms -- novel, sestet, sonnet, stanza

Activity One

1. *Opera* means "a work." What process of development has given it its present meaning?
2. Find the origin of *sonnet* and *novel*. Show why they come from the Italian.
3. Trace the etymology of *fracas*.
4. Relate *serenade* to *serene*.

American English

Background

Contributions to the English language from America were developed through the necessities of the new environment. Changes in vocabulary were effected by:

1. making compounds of existing English words (backwoods, copperhead)
2. using Indian words (canoe, moccasin)
3. using words from European settlers in America (prairie, adobe, sauerkraut)

(Other etymological principles and procedures also modified existing words.)

Activity Two

1. Why didn't the words for hurricane, tomato, wigwam arise in England?
2. "It's a cinch" is related to ranch life in what way?
3. Find the difference between English and American meanings of:

corn
robin
directly
mad
fix
homelike
lumber
public school
sleeper
typewriter

LESSON VI

Introduction

Words are subject to change in many ways. In the development of the vocabulary of English, many changes have occurred in words through several processes. These processes should be examined.

Degeneration and Elevation

When the meaning of a word becomes less respectable, worthy, or agreeable, we say that it has undergone degeneration (pejoration).

Examine the pejorative attitudes reflected in the following:

hoi polloi
puny
villain
maudlin
hussy
lewd
wench
ringleader
crafty
wanton

A word which has risen on the scale of values in a manner opposite to pejoration has become elevated. The opposite of degeneration is Amelioration (elevation). Examine this process in these words.

steward
dean
squire
knight
bard
fond
janitor
prestige
companion
nice

LESSON VII

Specialization and Generalization

As the association of a word for a large group of persons focuses upon a particular meaning, the word undergoes specialization. Examine the way in which these words have specialized.

girl
engine
uncouth
starve
deer
voyage
undertaker
evolution
pioneer
guy

Whenever a word loses a definite denotation, its meaning becomes diffused or generalized. Ignorance and the lack of literacy have contributed greatly to this linguistic change. Examine the generalization in these:

disaster
lunatic
influence
humorous
alcohol
decimate
quarantine
September
journal
barn
candidate
marmalade
test
coach
dappled

LESSON VIII

Antonomasia

The application of the name of an individual to an entire class is called antonomasia. Examples include the bowie knife from its inventor, James Bowie, and cantaloupe from the Castle Cantaloupo, near Rome, where the melons were first grown in Europe.

Exercises on Antonomasia

A. Look up the names from which these words come:

cereal
teddy bear
fahrenheit
saxophone
poinsettia
mackintosh
colt
bobby
lynch
guillotine
sideburns
stetson
dunce
boycott
levi's
bloomers
derrick
ampere
sandwich
quixotic
pasteurize

B. Make a list of words from characters in books and plays that you have read.

C. Make a list of scientific words derived from names of scientists.

Folk Etymology

Folk etymology is the derivation of words based on usage of people who do not know the real etymology and change the forms of words in accordance to what they think them to mean. It is a fairly common process among those who are illiterate or among those who are ignorant of a language from which words are borrowed. Examples include such a word as highboy: (Eng. high and Fr. bois, 'wood'; the resemblance of French bois, to English boy created the mistaken interpretation.)

Exercises

Examine the folk etymology responsible for these words:

buckwheat
greyhound
reindeer
turtle dove
sirloin

LESSON IX

Compounding and Hybridization

Compounding is the combination of elements, from the same language, into a word; a *hybrid* is the formation of a word from the elements of two or more different languages.

Blends

A *blend* is a combination of elements from two or more words; but unlike a *compound* or *hybrid*, it utilizes only parts of each element.

(smog: smoke and fog; chortle: chuckle and snort)

Exercises

A. What is the meaning of the elements of these compounds and hybrids?

1. goodbye
2. doff
3. telephone
4. cellophane
5. misogynist
6. electrocute
7. handkerchief
8. ventriloquist

B. Of what elements are these words blends?

1. snark
2. Nabisco
3. linotype
4. squash
5. splatter
6. squawk
7. motel
8. motorcade
9. twirl
10. galumphing

LESSON X

SUPPLEMENTARY PROJECTS

I. Make an examination of slang and its contributions to English.

II. Conduct a project in Neologisms. (Examine advertising, science, etc. for new words or old words with new meanings.)

III. Examine student writing to see how many languages have contributed to his expression.

A. Here is a single sentence containing words from thirty languages. See if you can identify all of them.

"The ugly thug loafed at a damask covered table in the cafe of a cheap saloon, eating goulash and macaroni washed down by copious draughts from the whisky jug and scowling at a haggard, half-caste brunette, evidently a slave of the brandy bottle, who sat, a lemon colored silk kimono over her turquoise tinted basque, and a crimson shawl across the back of her chair, eating hominy and drinking sugared chocolate from a china tea-cup; while outside the shanty his car, driven by a piratical Negro chauffeur, held a cargo of smuggled alcohol, as he made maudlin efforts, checked by his half-intoxicated condition, to decipher on the paper margin of his tobacco-stained menu card, the notation of the dollars which his plunder would bring him."

B. Try your hand at constructing such a sentence.

IV. There have been adaptations of English for non-English speakers.

A. Examine _Anglic_, an attempt to create a universal language based on English. What conclusions can you draw?

B. Examine some Pidgin English. What etymological conclusions can you draw from it, if any?

Big Name watchem sheepysheep.   Watchum blackfella
(The Lord is my shepherd;)

No more belly cry fella hab.   Big Name makem camp alonga
(I shall not want)   (He maketh me to lie down in

grass.   Takum blackfella walkabout longa, no fightem
(green pastures;   He leadeth me beside still waters.)

no more hurry wata.   Big Boss longa sky makum inside glad;
(He restoreth my soul;)

[illegible] walkabout longa, too much goodfella.
(He leadeth me in the path of righteousness for His names's sake.)

-- from Charlton Laird. The Miracle of Language.
Greenwich, Conn. Fawcett Publications, 1953,
p. 239.

Eng.

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TEST

1. Using dictionaries, look up the etymologies of the following groups. Note similarities and differences in the use of the roots, changes through prefixes or suffixes.

   torrid, terrain, inter, thirst
   virile, virtue, werewolf
   cynic, canine, kennel, hound
   despot, possible, possess, power
   aquatic, sewer, island
   energy, organ, work, wright
   loud, listen, Louis, slave
   cook, concoct, kitchen, biscuit
   candid, candidate, chandelier, incendiary
   stream, rhythm, rheumatism, catarrh

2. Trace the ways in which the following words have become more specific in meaning: worm, meat, crime, liquor, ghost, miser, injury, charm, campus, tyrant.

3. Trace the way these words have become more general: thing, business, concern, fact, condition, way, matter, person, box, chamber, try, go, child, part, grow.

4. The word Lord is the result of a compounding of hlaf-weard, or literally loaf-warden. In a brief paragraph, speculate on the reason for the ultimate meaning.

5. Examine the following words for pejoration: boor, cad, conceit, gossip, hypocrite, insane, paramour, pedant, prude, smug, vulgar, dumb, sinister

6. Trace the process of amelioration taking place in the following words: fame, polite, manly, lady, fun, sturdy, knight, angel, martyr, hero, dean.